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# REVIEW of EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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PUPIL, PERSONNEL, GUIDANCE, AND COUNSELING

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**Volume IX****April 1939****Number 2**

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## PUPIL PERSONNEL, GUIDANCE, AND COUNSELING

Reviews the literature from October 1935 to October 1938

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## INTRODUCTION

THIS REVIEW deals with three major areas of research. The first has to do with the *characteristics of the pupil*: physical, mental, emotional, social; these fields are reviewed in Chapter I. The second area is *school organization and classroom adjustment*. Under this heading are treated the topics of school attendance, school progress, school marks, school records and reports, educational adjustments to individual differences, and special schools and classes; these aspects are treated as subdivisions of Chapter II. The third major area, *guidance and counseling*, is increasing its direct contributions to personality development and individual pupil adjustment as well as its more indirect influence in shaping the objectives and procedures of the whole educational process. Research in the field of guidance and counseling is divided for purposes of presentation into *programs of guidance*, discussed in Chapter III, and *technics of guidance and counseling*, presented in Chapter IV. Some of the nine technics recognized were not included in former issues of the *Review* and basic researches prior to October 1935 have been included.

The members of the reviewing committee and their collaborators have shown a unanimity of thought with respect to desirable characteristics of research on guidance and counseling, notably, to study the whole individual; to consider the synthesis of information about individuals as of as great importance as its analysis; to base predictions upon deviations as well as upon central tendencies; to consider traits which can only be described verbally as well as those which may be described numerically; to follow research technics of established validity; to pioneer new methods in difficult research fields. While there is sporadic evidence of tendencies in these directions, the location of significant research still necessitates sifting masses of published material with titles that often prove to be false leads. Some of the so-called research involves repetitious proving of platitudes by doubtful methods. The existence of such material has been a hindrance to the reviewers through the possibility that the presence of significant research may be obscured by the quantity of insignificant research.

Evidence of advancing frontiers in research and in practice in pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling may be summarized briefly in the following observations:

1. There has been increasing recognition that individuals change constantly during growth, that an attitude or interest pattern recorded three years previously may be of little present value, and that abilities even as fundamental as those measured by the intelligence test are subject to change under the influence of environment.

2. There has been increasing and increasingly critical use of measures of personality traits, interests, and attitudes.

3. Emphasis has been placed upon finding the causes of nonattendance and adopting a plan of action in each case that promises the greatest good to the child whether or not that action increases the percent of attendance of the school or class.

4. There has been increasing experimentation with continuous progress plans for promotion, avoiding irrelevant issues such as those of annual versus semiannual promotions.

5. There has been a tendency to replace school marks with more meaningful records including the replacement of formal reports to parents by helpful personal letters.

6. Cumulative records were studied from the standpoint of supplementing existing records in order to develop a more meaningful history of the individual relative to the attainment of his personal educational objectives.

7. The extent of the need and the amount of provision for atypical children has been subjected to greater study than ever before.

8. Important advances have been made in the scoring of test and interest blanks both by mechanical means and by analytical studies.

9. A considerable body of fact has accumulated in the field of counseling, dealing with improvement of tools and devices for obtaining and using significant information about individuals.

During the year 1938 three important reports of deliberative committees addressed themselves to subjects in the field of pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling. In *Youth Tell Their Story*, the American Council on Education presents concrete evidence of the need of "a comprehensive program which must first of all develop a sociological approach to the problems and find ways of focusing all the efforts which society can make upon the individual youth and his needs." The American Association of School Administrators in *Youth Education Today* emphasizes the fact that guidance is not an act but a process extending over a period of time and brings into bold relief the need of continuous adjustment and guidance. The National Society for the Study of Education in its Yearbook on *Guidance in Educational Institutions* identifies guidance as an indispensable part of a unified educational process and emphasizes the fact that it is only as we respect the individual that guidance becomes an educational reality.

Educational science makes us recognize wide ranges of individual differences. Educational philosophy stresses the oneness or wholeness of each individual. Research in pupil personnel and guidance is capitalizing the findings of both science and philosophy in advancing our understanding of the individual and in seeing him whole.

PHILIP A. BOYER, *Chairman*  
*Committee on Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling*

## CHAPTER I

### Characteristics of Pupil Population<sup>1</sup>

RUTH M. STRANG

**S**TUDIES of the intelligence, achievement, attitudes, interests, environment, and personality of pupils have at least four values (86) :

1. They reveal individual differences in each of the characteristics studied.
2. They describe methods which the personnel worker may employ in studying his own pupils.
3. They supply knowledge about relationships of which the personnel worker should be aware.
4. They present central tendencies and distribution characteristics which make possible the identification of a pupil's position in the scale.

Not all of these values have been realized in all of the researches reported. Some reports failed to present the group variation, showing only the central tendencies. Few reported the distributions of the characteristic studied. Very few described the method of study in sufficient detail. If research on the behavior and background of pupils is to be most useful in guidance and counseling, more emphasis must be given to the distribution of differences revealed by the data and to a detailed description of the methods employed.

#### A. Elementary Education

Individual differences which are present at birth increase in number and complexity as the child grows older. Differences are found not only among different children but also within the same child with respect to his various characteristics. Stout (40) reported great differences between health status, mechanical ability, and socio-economic status for each of fifty-eight children of normal intelligence. No pupil who ranked high in any one trait was uniformly so in all other traits, and no pupil who ranked low in one trait was uniformly so in all others.

#### Physical Growth

An understanding on the part of personnel workers of bodily changes that take place in children and youth during school years is essential to effective guidance. Physical changes and defects are important in themselves; they are also important because of the psychological and social manifestations that may follow in their train. A critical summary of research on physical growth from birth to maturity was presented by Meredith in the *Review of Educational Research* for February 1939 (26).

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 221.

Cross-sectional observations of mean weight and height for groups show a relatively smooth and regular growth curve during elementary-school years up to the time of puberty. Individual curves, on the other hand, "reveal a very definite pubertal growth spurt and other indications of irregular growth" (14:92). The important developmental studies which have been reported during the last three years at the University of Iowa (3, 27), at Harvard (36), and at the University of California (18, 39) confirm the following tendencies in the growth of school children:

1. A period of relatively slow growth for two or three years prior to the prepubertal growth spurt.
2. A prepubertal spurt in growth which is earlier for girls than for boys. In the case of girls the twelfth year frequently is the time at which they make their largest annual gain in height.
3. A decrease in rate of growth following puberty.
4. Sufficient consistency in stature rank in the group during elementary-school years for competent prediction in the groupings, "tall" and "medium" (37), and to a less extent in the classification of "short."
5. A seasonal variation in weight gain (25). In general, weight increase of children is greatest in autumn, somewhat less in summer, and least in winter and spring. Seasonal variation in height is not clearly indicated.
6. Individual differences are prevalent and important. An individual not only differs from other children; he also is different from himself from time to time. Although there are important general trends, there appears to be slight uniformity in the development of his various traits and abilities. The result of this variability in growth is that in the intermediate grades—Grades V, VI, and VII—there are, in general, a few pupils who are still in the stage of fairly uniform rate of growth, many who are at the beginning of the prepubertal growth spurt, and a small number who have passed through the accelerating phase and are beginning to slow down in their rate of growth.

### Mental Ability

The data from the Harvard Growth Study analyzed by Lincoln (21) are fairly typical of many researches on the constancy of the intelligence quotient. He reported a median change of seven points in Stanford-Binet IQ of 1,200 children. Those scoring below 80 showed the least change from one test to another while greatest fluctuation occurred among superior children scoring above 120. Large losses of 20 or more intelligence quotient points were less frequent than large gains, occurring in 1.7 and 5 percent of the cases, respectively. In variations of 10 to 20 points, gains were likewise more frequent (12.5 percent) than losses (8.5 percent), while, in variations of 10 points or less, gains and losses were about equal. Cattell (7) reported similar results.

The most arresting researches in this area during the past three years are those which present evidence of the role of especially stimulating or especially unfavorable environments on the constancy of the intelligence quotient. Such evidence has been supplied by studies of underprivileged foster children placed in good homes at a very early age, by researches on orphanage children given the advantage of a few hours daily in a fairly good nursery school or placed under the personal care of older, mentally

retarded children who, to the young children, represented an intellectually stimulating environment (10). Some of these investigations have been ably reviewed by Wellman (43) and, because they deal with children of preschool age, will not be reviewed here.

The research by Wellman (42) on the changes in intelligence quotients of children in the University of Iowa schools deserves attention. The IQ's during preschool years were based on either the Stanford-Binet or Kuhlmann-Binet tests. Later the same children were tested with the Stanford-Binet, and still later in high school with the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. As a group the children gained significantly in intelligence quotients during the time they were in nursery school and made additional gains in a progressive elementary school. One child, whose IQ at three years of age was 89, had an IQ of 118 at three and a half years; at six years, 117; at ten and a half, 149; and at thirteen and a half, 132. At the end of high school he scored at the 99 percentile on the group intelligence tests. Other individual cases equally striking were presented. Those who revere the intelligence quotient point out that the results of tests in the early preschool years are not highly reliable, that a factor of selection may have entered to give the children in the experimental group whose parents wanted to send them to the superior schools an advantage over the control group who went to public school, and that even the best tests of intelligence depend too much on education. In spite of these objections, this group of researchers places an emphasis on the provision of a favorable environment for every child and makes it impossible for the personnel worker to take a fatalistic attitude toward any child's intelligence quotient.

It is possible that an individual's mental organization as well as his level of mental ability changes with age. Asch (2) administered a battery of intelligence tests to 161 children at the age of nine and again at the age of twelve, and concluded on the basis of intercorrelations obtained that such a change occurs. That there may be patterns of ability making for success at certain tasks is suggested by the scores made by mentally defective girls on a battery of standardized tests (61). Also, a followup study of graduates from special classes (low intelligence) in Ottawa, Canada, over a period of seven years revealed that boys and girls of subnormal mentality do obtain and hold jobs. Of 257 graduates studied, 86 percent had worked at some time since leaving school, 56 percent had worked over half the time, 27 percent had worked all the time, and only 14 percent had never been employed.

### **Achievement**

There are problems of admission in elementary school as well as in college. Although children admitted to school under age have been found to be more successful in academic achievement than regular pupils, and, in general, are as socially mature, it is probable that a child's mental age for admission to the first grade should not be less than five years and ten months (16). Other perennial problems are those of promotion and so-called homo-

geneous grouping. Evidence keeps appearing from time to time on each of these problems (1, 5).

In an investigation of the study methods of 1,250 pupils in Grades IV to XII, the superior pupils in every grade displayed better habits of study than average or inferior pupils, but a general prevalence of poor habits was revealed. There is some evidence that methods of study tend to become fixed in the elementary grades and tend not to improve appreciably thereafter (11). More specific problems of learning and achievement in reading, arithmetic, and other elementary-school subjects are treated systematically and thoroughly in the *Review of Educational Research* for December 1937 (14).

### Attitudes and Interests

Attitudes and interests occupy a strategic place in the learning process; they often supply the key to accomplishment in and out of school. They are not readily revealed, however, by current methods of investigation. While it is the attitudes and interests of an *individual* child with which the personnel worker is primarily concerned, a background of opinions of large groups of children may also be of value. Reports were given by 54,000 pupils in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades regarding the things done by children or adults which caused other people to like or dislike them. Specific answers of children in the sixth grade pointed to their disapproval, in general, of dishonesty, bullying, cowardliness, and selfishness, and revealed that they liked persons who are cooperative, honest, loyal to their friends, trustworthy, kind, and self-contained (31).

The investigation by Witty and Kopel (45) is typical of others which have indicated that children's fondness for reading increases from the first grade to the fifth or sixth, after which there is a decline in higher grades. In the early grades, reading interest is chiefly in books; in the upper grades, newspaper and magazine reading account for an increasing proportion of total reading time. An investigation by Manske (23) supported previous investigations in concluding that ordinary class instruction seldom changes attitudes, and that pupils rarely reflect the attitudes of their teachers.

### Personality

Murphy (29) concluded that variations, and even apparent contradictions, in behavior must be interpreted in terms of what the specific situation means to the child—his psychological relation to it and the symbolic values which he finds in it. Stoddard (38) and Prescott (33) likewise pointed out that emotional responses shift with changes in the dynamic environment. The direction and degree of such shifts is an important problem for research. Although it was suggested by one writer (6) that intelligence and adjustment have little in common, another (4) found that retarded, regular, and gifted classes differ significantly in social maturity. Chi (9) found that teachers can rate pupils on personality traits with an agreement indicated

by a correlation of .47 for the ratings made by five teachers who rated 100 pupils on 19 items.

### **Problem Behavior**

The prevalence of problem behavior is indicated by one survey of 55,955 children, 2.4 percent of whom were listed by their teachers as "problem children" (35). Those characterized as "problem children" were of all ages, although two-thirds of them were between the ages of ten and thirteen. They were of all degrees of intelligence, with the modal group lying between 80 and 90 IQ. Studies of juvenile delinquents (8, 12, 17, 34, 35, 44), while indicating a positive relationship between delinquency and low mental ability, also emphasize individual differences among delinquents and patterns of causes rather than single causative factors. Poor home relationships, lack of recreational and social opportunities, and inappropriate educational offerings were repeatedly found to be associated with delinquent behavior.

Teachers are still prone to report first as problem children those exhibiting the attacking forms of behavior (46). The patterns of personality attributed by teachers to "problem cases" were nearly identical with those which have been used to characterize delinquents (35). This similarity raises some grave questions: Is the idea of a delinquent type being emphasized in spite of the convincing evidence of the multiple causation of delinquent behavior? Are teachers identifying and characterizing certain children in their classes as delinquent types, thus promoting a negative expectancy of delinquency?

## **B. Secondary Education**

Research concerning the physical development, intelligence, achievement, personality, interests and attitudes, qualities of leadership, problems, and vocational plans and interests of secondary-school students has been summarized in detail elsewhere (86). Recent large-scale surveys of youth and their problems in certain communities give a general picture of the status of these individuals in the community, and more clearly define the duty of the schools to them.

### **Physical Characteristics**

In the section on elementary education reference was made to extremely important growth studies extending into adolescent years (26). Several general tendencies were mentioned: the prepubertal growth spurt, the precedence of girls over boys in this accelerated growth, and the decrease in rate of growth following puberty. All of these general characteristics were accepted as well established by Stanley Hall in 1904 and recent research has corroborated rather than disproved them.

From the measurements of a group of 533 sixteen-year-old boys selected at random from the files of the Harvard Growth Study, it was found impossible to classify individuals of this age group into "body types" with any degree of accuracy (52). The investigators devised an equation for the estimation of body weight of boys and girls fourteen to eighteen years of age, which is claimed to be 20 percent more efficient in the determination of normal weight than are the Baldwin-Wood Height-Weight Tables.

The important emphasis in the latest developmental studies is on variability rather than on central tendencies (15, 52, 81). Among junior high-school pupils, some show retarded, others accelerated, growth; some show inappropriate or abnormal growth. Variability in height and weight is related to age of sexual maturation. Anthropometric data (78) on 1,871 girls, aged six to seventeen years, and on 1,884 boys, aged six to eighteen years, showed that girls who matured before thirteen years of age were, as a group, heavier at each age from six to seventeen than those who matured later. The same tendency for early maturity to be associated with greater weight at each age was noted in the case of boys. Both boys and girls who matured earlier were likewise taller than those who matured later. Shuttleworth's still more elaborate analysis (36) of the Harvard Growth Study data revealed: "Each dimension has its own characteristic pattern of growth and each shows three phases, of slow or decelerating growth, of decidedly accelerating growth, and of sharply decelerating growth. The inflection points between these three phases are intimately timed in relation to the advent of the menarche . . ." (36:188). These facts imply that the dietary needs of the rather short accelerating phase concentrated within a period of two or three years are far greater than group cross-sectional studies would indicate. In this monograph is supplied new material with which to answer some of the questions adolescents ask of counselors and teachers, for example, "Am I normal?" "Will I ever stop growing?"

### **Mental Ability**

The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (58) surveyed the intelligence of almost 20,000 students in the United States by means of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. The resultant scores favored boys at all levels. There was found a steady, though not uniform, increase with each age and grade; pupils in private schools showed marked superiority over those in public schools; and the level of intelligence was distinctly higher in accredited schools than in those nonaccredited, and higher in those whose enrolments were over 1,000 than in the smaller schools. The median intelligence of students graduating in 1933 from nine high schools in Minnesota was practically the same as that of University of Minnesota freshmen (80).

Students may frequently suffer from the subjective judgments of teachers as to their mental ability. The average error made by teachers in several

rural high schools in estimating the intelligence of 114 students was 10 IQ points. The teachers generally underestimated the ability of the superior students and overestimated that of the dull group.

### **Achievement**

Clearness of academic goals and good organization of their work appear to characterize the most successful pupils in certain high schools (57). That acceleration is not detrimental to achievement was demonstrated by 286 superior and accelerated high-school seniors who ranked above the average of their class scholastically and, in addition, engaged freely in group activities (92, 93). Whether there are social and affective concomitants to acceleration can be determined only by an intimate study of individuals.

It is not only the retarded pupils who leave school. As a group, more than 3,300 transient boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty in Los Angeles were less than one year retarded. Little difference in this respect was noted between boys from rural and urban areas (69). Further detail about the achievement of high-school pupils in each subject may be found in the *Review of Educational Research* of February 1938.

### **Attitudes and Interests**

In interpreting studies of interests and attitudes we should bear in mind that the interests expressed by adolescent boys and girls on questionnaires may not represent their true interests. Symonds (88, 89) found that boys conventionally expressed greater interest in health, safety, money, and sex than did girls. Prominent among interests which girls expressed on questionnaires are personal attractiveness, personal philosophy, daily schedule, mental health, and home and family relationships. There was some indication, as might be expected, that city pupils were more conscious of social skills than rural boys and girls.

In respect to school subjects, one group of high-school pupils expressed preference for the humanities as against mathematics and languages. The two reasons they most frequently gave for preferring a subject were interest and proficiency in it (73).

According to Dimock (53), religious beliefs are not influenced by physical change at adolescence. He found, however, that all changes in religious beliefs during adolescence are in the liberal direction, and that the amount of change in this direction is in inverse proportion to the degree of liberalism already achieved. Investigations on attitudes and interests are summarized in detail in another volume (86: 229-70).

### **Leadership**

In studies of leadership the two chief criteria are: (a) number and rank of student offices held, and (b) designation by other students or by teachers as leaders. These criteria are obviously inadequate as individuals may

exert important influence without being recognized as leaders. Partridge (70) found that in spontaneous groupings boys tend to choose as leaders individuals who are older, more intelligent, stronger, heavier, and taller than average. The latter two characteristics bear no influence, however, when age and intelligence are held constant. Several investigators (59, 70, 77, 82, 85) characterized leaders as tending to be a single or only child in a family, coming from superior homes and neighborhoods, superior in health, appearance, and richness of experience, participating more actively in extracurriculum activities, planning their time constructively, and having above average mental ability though not sufficiently superior to be detached from the group.

It appears that interests and available time may be important factors in differentiating leaders from non-leaders, as is also the philosophy of social education in the school. There may also be some common element in leadership situations which accounts for the facts that pupils who are office-holders tend to occupy several positions (77) and to achieve positions of influence in college and in later life (51).

### **Personality**

The study of personality is still fragmentary. Between certain aspects of personality and scholastic achievement a positive relationship was reported by Portenier (72) and by Soderquist (83). No relationship was found between physique and manifestations of personality, as measured by the Wertheimer-Hesbeth morphological index and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory (68). Using the Allport Test, Williams and Chamberlain (94) investigated ascendance and submission in 259 rural high-school girls between the ages of ten and twenty and concluded that there takes place a definite genetic development in this trait which in many respects parallels the characteristics of physical development. They reported a greater variability in ascendance-submission at the adult level than during adolescence. Many other studies of relationships are reviewed in another volume (86: 186-228).

There is some evidence that high-school students can rate other students on "sociability" more satisfactorily than can teachers, and with a high degree of reliability (83). When students are asked to rate themselves on personality traits, according to their own testimony, they tend to be uniformly more honest concerning themselves when not required to sign their names to their self-evaluations (84).

### **Youth Problems**

The two outstanding problems revealed in a number of youth studies (47, 48, 50, 67, 71, 75, 76) were problems of unemployment and the use of leisure. In the country as a whole it was estimated that there are between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000 youths between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four who are out of school and unemployed. Relatively fewer jobs apparently

are being open to this group than to adults. In Maryland (48) and in Denver (47) the percent unemployed out of school the first year and employable was 40 to 46 percent. In Philadelphia (71) 14 percent of the high-school graduates and 22 percent of the vocational school graduates were unemployed, but only 4 percent of the total had had no employment during the two-year interval since graduation. The Rochester survey (76) of 6,000 high-school graduates revealed only a slight relationship between vocational training in high school and subsequent employment.

Pupils in school ranked lack of money, health, and personal attractiveness as their three most outstanding problems, and city pupils reported more problems relating to health and fewer to money and the planning of time than did rural pupils (88, 89). Only 56 percent of one group reported that they have regularly scheduled hours for study (79), whereas, in another group reported, 81 percent reported regular study hours (54). Other study difficulties reported were lack of knowledge of how to study and difficulty in getting started. Procedures associated with higher marks were skimming passages before reading them in detail, preparing lessons day by day, studying for classes just before they begin, and looking up words in the dictionary.

### **Vocational Interests and Choices**

From several studies of high-school pupils and graduates it was learned that (a) boys tended to choose from a wider range of occupations than did girls but that neither showed a wide range of selection nor a realization of the increased crowding in some occupations (60); (b) a course in occupations resulted in a marked increase in the number deciding upon their high-school course and in the number of those making vocational decisions (63); (c) sons do not tend to follow their father's occupations but do tend to find employment on the same occupational level (74); and (d) there is a strong relationship between pupils' occupational rank achieved and length of schooling and level of intelligence. Exceptions to all these tendencies were noted.

## **C. Higher Education**

For the first time, study of the older adolescent has not been confined to students in colleges and universities. During the last three years extensive surveys have been made of out-of-school youth. Although all of these surveys may not warrant applying to them the word "research" they supply a wealth of information about the activities and opinions of a large group that have never been studied adequately.

### **Physical Characteristics**

If the developmental studies already described were continued through college years, the same valuable kind of data would be obtained as have

already been reported for childhood and early adolescent years. Available studies of college students have shown a cessation in growth during late adolescence which is even more striking than the earlier acceleration, especially for privileged groups. During the four years of college, measures of height and weight of students obtained from independent samples of the population at successive ages tended to remain, on the average, fairly constant (105, 114). These cross-sectional results, however, do not prove conclusively that adolescents cease to grow during college years. When subjects were measured in consecutive years an increase in height was noted in the case of college women up to nineteen years of age (98). A small but significant annual increment was reported in the case of one group of college women between the ages of seventeen and twenty. Growth during the later adolescent years appeared to be related to the kind of activity in which the individual engaged. Active employment seemed to favor the greatest growth (26).

### **Mental Ability and Achievement**

Research on predicting scholastic success in college indicates that intelligence tests and high-school marks vie for first place as criteria of admission (108, 117, 127, 136, 141). The fact that certain students of low achievement in high school have demonstrated their ability to do satisfactory college work is a warning against basing admission on grades alone (142). Williamson (153) reported a significant decrease in correlations between intelligence test scores and college scholarship over a period of years, and offered as possible explanations changes in administrative and educational procedures, teachers' adjustments of scholastic standards to abilities of students, and increased effectiveness of the personnel program. The value of either intelligence tests or marks is increased when supplemented by the other and also by ratings, achievement tests (107, 150), and other information (87). Lack of original intention to go to college appeared to account for the slightly poorer showing of one group of students deficient in entrance requirements (111). However, lack of specific college entrance requirements per se has been shown to be inconsequential to college success (123). Of all single indications of further success in college the best appears to be the mid-term college grades (126, 139). Winter (158) insisted that it is impossible to predict a student's true status without giving him a trial.

The Pennsylvania Study (124) bared the wide differences in knowledge and understanding, as measured by especially constructed achievement tests, of students on the same educational levels, both within the same and different institutions. According to this investigation many students now resident in colleges should be supplanted by high-school graduates of superior ability who are financially unable to attend or for other reasons have not entered. A study of approximately 2,500 students enrolled in the same class over a period of a dozen years likewise showed great variability in achievement (95).

After students are admitted to college their scholarship may be improved in a number of ways. Ross (140) reported that informing students of low ability of their handicap and motivating them through wise counsel toward seriousness of purpose and accomplishment tended to raise their scholarship over that of those not so counseled. Students of low ability profited more than superior students from supervised study (138), but, beyond a certain point, increasing the number of hours of study did not compensate for low academic ability (155). The grades achieved by students permitted to remain in college for more than two semesters on academic discipline do not seem to justify such harborage (152). At the University of Chicago, achievement above expectancy characterized students living in the residence halls. Students living at home approximately equaled their promise in achievement, but fraternity house groups and those in private rooming houses fell significantly below (148). So far as two investigations (156, 162) showed, selection of a vocation does not significantly affect students' scholarship. Nor does part-time work, unless excessive, affect the student's scholastic standing. Students receiving NYA aid received marks above average, but there is evidence to show that they are select in ability as well as in health and other traits. Investigations affirm the need of such aid on the part of students receiving it (110, 143, 147, 156). Investigations of race, sex, and age differences in intelligence concur in the conclusion that differences within groups are greater than those between groups (103, 104, 128).

Researches such as are reported in this chapter should dispel prejudices which a personnel worker might have concerning any group of pupils. The individual differences between pupils in a group, the overlapping in abilities between diverse groups, the variability among the characteristics of a single individual, should tend to make the personnel worker more open-minded and free from unfounded bias in his approach to individual pupils.

### **Beliefs and Attitudes**

Students' opinions regarding a number of questions have been obtained through interviews and questionnaires. The difficulties of the bias of the interviewer, the conscious or unconscious tendency of the subject to respond in special ways, his lack of insight, and the inadequacies of sampling, all make the results of investigations in this area difficult to interpret. Students' attitudes toward marriage and sex have received considerable attention (100, 134, 145). These investigations supply a wealth of anecdotal type of material. In the field of religious interests and attitudes, the extent of students' Bible reading and study was reported by Reddick (137), and other attitudes toward religion and the church by Jones (118), Sturges (144), Whitely (151), and Woolston (160).

The consensus of evidence points to the conclusion that attitudes toward war may be markedly affected by speeches and class instruction (119, 121,

135). Menefee (130) came to the conclusions that stereotyped phrases or "catchwords" apparently have marked influence upon students' acceptance or rejection of ideas and that certain instruction in sociology was effective in producing change of attitude with respect to the questions studied. The validity of such changes in attitude, however, should be measured after longer intervals of time have elapsed than are usually allowed. Darley (106) found that stability of opinions on retests varies with recency of establishment of opinion as well as with persons studied. Studies of attitudes and interests of college students are reviewed in detail by the writer elsewhere (86: 229-70).

### Personality

The exceptionally able college student is not socially maladjusted; rather, there tends to be a positive relationship between intelligence and adjustment (131). Poor class work is not necessarily evidence of low intelligence. Social and emotional immaturity, lack of purpose, and possession of interests and individuality not satisfied by college activities may underlie poor scholarship. Students of low mental ability who remain in college, however, tend to have personality maladjustments intensified by humiliation and inferiority feelings (159). Inferiority feelings are recognized by students subject to them; often they are bred before entrance to college and have their roots in dearth of social contacts, adverse home relationships, and financial insecurity. One study discovered men graduate students harboring most inferiority feelings (113). In general, the symptoms and characteristics displayed by individuals rated by their associates reveal that students are able to judge the adjustment of others and can discriminate between those well and poorly adjusted. Poor adjustment in such instances appears to be that in which withdrawing behavior is prominent, while good adjustment is evidenced by relaxation, wit, and cooperation (136).

Some scattered information has been reported concerning the social aspects of personality. Burks (102) found no significant relationship between scores on the George Washington Social Intelligence Test and composite ratings by sorority sisters on four social traits. According to student testimony, teacher personality is more effective in the development of students' character than is the subject taught. The importance of extra-curriculum activities is also stressed. Other agencies such as the home and church are given more credit by students for exerting positive influence upon their character development than is the school (101). Pencil-and-paper tests of personality have doubtful validity for discovery and diagnosis of personality maladjustments (86, 112, 120, 161). Subjects are often able to shift their scores on these measures enormously in any desired direction (119).

In a monograph prepared by the Harvard Psychological Clinic (133) one finds a plan for the comprehensive study of the personality of college

students. Although psychoanalytical, introspective, and other subjective methods of study predominated, technical procedures and appropriate mechanical aids such as speech-recording apparatus and moving picture cameras were not neglected. This research was extensive with respect to time devoted to each subject and number of experimenters participating. It represents the most thorough application of subjective methods of studying the personality of college students which has yet been made in experimental work. The genetic approach to the study of personality was considered an essential feature of the methodology. Of the technical procedures the projection tests brought to light the most significant data concerning emotionally logical connections between past events and present behavior. Although the skeptical "peripheralist" might question the soundness of some of the interpretation, the book presents subjective methods of studying personality which are seldom described.

### Problems

The areas constituting problems for freshmen, according to one extensive investigation, were, in rank order: courses, religion, teachers, economic worries, the library, educational guidance, personal student relations, athletics, vocations, rooming problems, and several of lesser frequency. A substantial number revealed themselves not sufficiently emancipated from home to be comfortable elsewhere. Each student tended to consider his own problems unique (109).

Moore and Graham (132) achieved excellent control of variables in a study of freshmen's distributions of time at Mt. Holyoke College. The average freshman there spends eight to nine hours per day on academic work, four or five on recreation, between ten and eleven on physical care, and about two on personal care and miscellaneous activities.

### Vocational Interests and Choices

Early vocational preferences expressed by students of Wesleyan University proved to be of little significance to their actual decisions. A number of years after graduation, 38 percent were following the occupation expressed as their first choice in their freshman year; 15 percent were in occupations related to their first choice; and 47 percent were in different occupations. However, 53 percent were engaged in the occupation chosen as their first choice when they were seniors; 14 percent were in related occupations; and 33 percent had found work entirely different. Choices in professional fields proved most stable. A followup study of nearly 6,000 graduates of the University of Minnesota revealed data concerning employment during the depression; also, that women's salaries are consistently lower than men's, and that the proportion of men continuing their studies has tripled since 1928, while the proportion of women has doubled.

Wallace (149) reported that specializing in any one field in the liberal arts program apparently bears little specific relation to immediate employment. Students who graduated in the scientific fields from the classes of 1930 to 1936 did not find employment in large numbers. Graduates approve of a vocational rather than a cultural emphasis in college offerings.

### **Further Research Needed**

There is need for investigations which aim (a) to discover the kind of environment and guidance which affords a given individual his best chance of development, (b) to study the effect of the acquisition of certain skills on adolescent personality, and (c) to ascertain the antecedents of both poor and good adjustment. In other words, a good many scientifically gathered, unbiased, clinical data on unselected cases followed over a period of years are necessary in order to obtain a knowledge of the processes by which certain kinds of development are achieved. Such research would supplement the mass of existing facts and opinions about each characteristic briefly reviewed in this chapter.

## CHAPTER II

### School Organization and Classroom Adjustment<sup>1</sup>

PHILIP A. BOYER, with the cooperation of HAROLD H. BIXLER, HANS C. GORDON, ARCH O. HECK, and JOHN J. LEE

CHAPTER I PRESENTED recent research revealing ways in which young people may differ from one another. The questions arise: What efforts are the schools making to discover the differences in individuals in the large masses of pupils? What do the schools do to promote in each individual his highest possible development? To summarize the reports of research on these two questions is the aim of the present chapter.

Most of the literature in this field cites present practice; the more significant studies stress suggestions for improving that practice. A few of the suggestions have been demonstrated to be desirable by trial under the special conditions reported. Efforts have been made by the reviewers to include those studies (a) which contain some data to permit evaluation of success, or (b) which report unevaluated practices for large populations or for recognized experimental situations.

The subdivisions of the chapter suggest the chief articles in the creed of school people in adapting the schools to the needs of the children. They are:

1. School attendance: Children must be attracted to school if they are to share its influence.
2. School progress: All the school's facilities should be available to any child. This result can be attained only through the opportunity for regular continuous progress through the whole gamut of activities of the school system.
3. School marks: The evaluation of the products of learning activity must be in terms of major objectives. Evaluations must indicate the direction as well as the amount of progress.
4. School records and reports: Accurate educational data are needed by which the school may formulate and report objectives for each child and direct his progress toward these goals.
5. Educational adjustments to individual differences: Every ingenuity should be used to permit, as fully as possible, the participation of each child in the full benefits of the school's program.
6. Special schools and classes: Special schools and special classes are needed to provide for the specialized needs of atypical children.

#### A. School Attendance

ARCH O. HECK

##### A New Approach

The previous *Review* (184) dealing with pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling pointed out that the use of truant officers and police officers as a

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 227.

means of maintaining good school attendance was more and more being called into question. Investigators of attendance during the past three years have continued to emphasize a different approach in the handling of problems of school attendance. Abbott (163) discussed the necessity of knowing why pupils do not attend school and of removing the causes of nonattendance. Schultz (202) showed that in sixteen cities reputed to have been influenced by the modern point of view, visiting teacher, counseling, psychological, psychiatric, accounting, and health services were utilized in handling attendance problems. The organization of all such services has been considered by Schultz (202) and by Heck (184). If this new approach is to be made effective, workers must be well trained (197, 209) or a new type of worker will supersede them (188, 194).

### **Causes of Nonattendance**

Causes of nonattendance assume greater significance the moment the new approach to problems of school attendance is accepted. Illness is still reported as an important cause when based upon reports by parents (173) and attendance officers (196). Pinckney (199) reporting upon 350,000 cases of absence in Texas found that colds ranked first, at all school levels, as causing most absence among the "reportable" diseases. Deitrich (176), Gardner (179), Hyde (189), Tippetts (205), and Walsh (208) found illness to be an important cause. Tippetts said that common colds lead all other ailments as a cause of absence.

Illness as a cause of nonattendance has probably been exaggerated. Kincaid (196) believes that it is given as an excuse to cover other conditions. He suggested parental negligence or indifference, parental stupidity or ignorance, weather, the economic condition of the home, parental greed, and failure to adapt school to the child as the underlying causes of nonattendance. Gardner (179) concluded that absence is rarely the result of any one cause but of "several associated factors." Lawing (193), using various field studies, school codes, results of other investigations, and a questionnaire inquiry, concluded that poor school attendance in many of the states is due to a lack of legislation defining (a) which children must attend, (b) length of time they must attend, and (c) penalty for nonattendance. He also concluded that lack of enforcing agencies was responsible for much nonattendance.

### **Factors Related to Nonattendance**

School marks in relation to nonattendance were studied by several workers (164, 167, 168, 170, 173, 179). Pupils with the greatest nonattendance tended to receive the lowest grades and vice versa. Anderson (164) called attention to the fact that this did not imply a causal relationship. Cutler (171) found that when IQ was held constant the correlation between achievement and attendance, while positive, was too low to be significant.

Clifton (170) showed that pupils of average intelligence who were irregular suffered a loss in achievement proportionate to loss of time at school; that irregular pupils of higher IQ lost much less in achievement than the amount of nonattendance would indicate; and that irregular pupils of low IQ lost much more.

The intelligence of pupils as a factor in nonattendance was not clearly established. Darby (173) and Hyde (189) stated that there was no relationship. Deitrich (176) said there was little, if any, relationship and presented data showing negative correlations of .11, .12, and .12 for Grades VII, VIII, and IX, respectively, in the Central Junior High School of Los Angeles. Carlson (168) and Cutler (171) found a positive correlation between attendance and IQ.

Younger children of a given grade were found to have better attendance than older children of the same grade (168, 173). Clifton (170) found that pupils irregular in the primary grades suffered a smaller loss in achievement than did those in the upper grades who were irregular. Anderson (164) in a study of 3,000 pupils in Grades I to XII concluded that girls attended a little better than boys. At the junior high-school level boys seemed to attend better than girls (173, 176).

Several other factors were found to be related to nonattendance. Anderson (164) found that accelerated pupils attended more regularly than others. According to Carlson (168), the loss of one parent did not seem to affect attendance. Pupils whose parents were unemployed tended to be absent more than those whose parents were employed. Whether parents were employed in semiskilled or unskilled occupations seemed to have little effect upon absence. Clarke (169) found no correlation between type of school and absence or between penalties and absence; he did find that those who were tardy the least were inclined to be absent the most and vice versa.

### Enrolment

Enrolment in the public schools of the United States showed a decrease during the biennium 1935 and 1936; the decrease was slight, being only .3 of 1 percent (166). The fact that a decrease took place is significant. The previous *Review* (184) noted a decrease in elementary-school and a huge increase in high-school enrolment, the combined enrolment showing an increase until 1935 and 1936. Perhaps the most interesting observation to be made about present enrolment data is that elementary enrolments are still accelerating in their decreases whereas the high-school enrolment increases are being greatly retarded.

A further analysis of recent enrolment figures showed that first-grade enrolment for the nation has continued to decrease each biennium during the 1930's. The percents of decrease have been consecutively 5.3, 5.4, and 5.0 for the first three bienniums (166). These facts suggest further decreases in both elementary and combined enrolment during the next few years.

### Attendance

The average daily attendance for the public schools of the United States dropped .7 of 1 percent in 1934-36 although each of the previous bienniums of this decade had shown marked increases (166). The percents of attendance for the United States have varied but slightly, being 84.5, 85.0, and 84.6 for the three successive bienniums.

Trenham (206) showed that, for California, the total elementary-school average daily attendance reached its high point in 1934; the next two years showed a drop of 3.6 percent. Lane (192) showed a similar trend. Morgan (195) studied special day and evening classes in California and concluded that both the enrolment and average daily attendance in these classes "struck bottom" in 1932-33 and then turned upward.

Data on percent of attendance varied greatly where careful investigations were made in particular communities. Darby (173), reporting on a junior high school, noted 6.7 percent absence as the greatest for any month during the year. Clarke (169), studying 22 high schools in Ohio, found an average daily absence of 3 percent. D. P. Davis (174) found percents of attendance ranging from 66 to 100 among reports from 10,000 classrooms in Pennsylvania. Hohstadt (186), in a study of 35,000 pupils in consolidated and unconsolidated school districts, discovered percents of attendance of 70 and 59, respectively. Clarke (169) and Anderson (164) both concluded that most of the absence occurring during a given term or semester was caused by a small proportion of the pupils. Hunt (188), on the other hand, said that 80 percent of the school's enrolment had had one or more days of absence during a given term. These two types of findings are not contradictory. We may well expect a high percent of our pupils to have one or more days of absence and still have the greater part of the absence caused by a small proportion of the pupils.

Pearson (198), in a study of 2,568 white children in the public schools of Biloxi, Mississippi, concluded that the greatest number of absences for any and all causes occurred during the middle of the school year. Gardner (179), in his study of junior high schools in Salt Lake City, found that the high point in attendance occurred the last week in September; a gradual decrease continued throughout the first semester at the close of which a big drop took place. From that point on attendance was somewhat irregular but relatively stable. He found a distinct drop in attendance on days both preceding and succeeding holidays or vacations; in accord with this he also found better attendance during midweek. Darby (173) found that September, October, and January provided the best attendance during the school year. Hyde (189) picked October, November, and January. According to Darby (173), December, May, and June gave the poorest attendance both in terms of one-day absences and longer absences. Tippetts (205) and Vogel (207) found that absence reached its peak during January and February.

### Suggestions for Improving Attendance

Pearson (198) suggested full-time health service and parental education. Similar suggestions were made by numerous other writers (169, 176, 179, 180, 183, 197, 199, 204). Heck (183) would extend transportation facilities. The case-study technic was frequently discussed as a helpful procedure (176, 179, 188, 194). Schultz (202), Noal (197), and Heck (184) emphasized the importance of such services as visiting teacher, counseling, psychological, psychiatric, and health if the causes of nonattendance were to be unearthed and corrected. Noal (197) found that when pupils were handled thus many who resented required attendance came to appreciate the school and made good in their work.

Other suggestions included (a) an approved continuous census and modern cumulative pupil records (183, 184, 197) which Noal (197) claimed made possible a "legal accounting for 99 percent of all children between the ages of six and eighteen years"; (b) provision for individual differences in interests and abilities (197); (c) enrichment of the curriculum program (204); and (d) four reports (174, 181, 193, 207) which tended to stress a strict enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws and the use of systematic attendance propaganda directed at teachers and parents. Lawing (193), in particular, emphasized the necessity of having good local attendance workers who are approved by and who may be removed by a state supervisor.

The majority of these suggestions emphasize an observation made in the previous *Review* (184) that nonattendance is largely not an individual but a social problem; causes do not lie just within the framework of the individual child but within the framework of the social group of which he is a part. Devices were not recognized as so important as formerly (208). Remedial programs for improving school attendance must, therefore, continue to study the child and to remove the hindrances that immediately and directly affect him.

### Qualifications of Attendance Workers

The new approach to the solution of attendance problems was further emphasized by changes in the qualifications of attendance workers. F. G. Davis and Wheeler (175) presented a picture of this change by analyzing the examination questions set for attendance workers in Philadelphia from 1914 to 1930. The earlier examinations emphasized a knowledge of the compulsory attendance laws and an ability to justify such laws; the more recent examinations demanded an understanding of problems of child welfare and of social case work. Schultz (202) found that, in his cities, the typical attendance officer had about the same professional status as the typical elementary-school teacher. He pointed out that during the past ten years the attendance work of these cities had been shared increasingly by visiting teachers and coordinators who had a still better educational back-

ground, more professional training, and a background of more helpful experience than the attendance officers.

Effectiveness of attendance service depends not only upon a worker's qualifications but also upon the "load" he has to carry. Schultz (202) found that in most of the sixteen cities each field worker was, on the average, responsible for 3,900 pupils or less. Gordon (180) recommended a load of 2,500 per worker. Lawing (193) suggested 2,000 as the load for the first worker and 4,000 for each additional worker.

### Administrative Organization

If many services are to be available for pupil study in the handling of nonattendance, a problem of the proper relationship between such services is created. Schultz (202) found at least three types of administrative organization for their control and utilization: (a) each service was set up in a separate department; (b) all these services had been assembled into one unified department under the administrative control of one person; and (c) the services were kept distinct, with some one person in charge of each service, but were united in one division under one administrative control. In actual practice, there were numerous variations of these three types. Lawing (193) reported only two states which had state officers responsible for local enforcement; seven states had state supervision with local enforcement; and the remaining states had only local enforcement. He recommended a state director of attendance who would approve and remove local attendance workers.

### Results of Nonattendance

Reckless (200) concluded that "most adult offenders are actually continued cases of juvenile delinquents or problem children whose behavior difficulties were never settled or outgrown." Thus it becomes the more imperative that every necessary step be taken to reduce problems of nonattendance with their usual, and sometimes serious, accompanying problems.

A result, more recently noted, was the loss of state funds when absences occurred. The *Pasadena School Review* (201) noted that the local board lost thirty-three cents in the elementary and fifty cents in the secondary schools per day of absence. Schultz (202) noted that there were 26 of the 48 states which distributed state school funds so that average daily attendance was taken into consideration. He estimated that for Los Angeles an increase of 1 percent in attendance would produce an additional \$150,000 from the state. When absences begin to cost the district large sums of state money the district becomes interested in steps which seem effective in improving attendance even if those steps do cost more than the older type of "police service."

### Legal Aspects of Attendance

Irwin (190) reported data indicative of trends in compulsory school attendance legislation. He found that (a) the age period is being lengthened at both ends, (b) the school year is being made longer, (c) more education is being required for exemption, and (d) children living a long distance from school are being transported. Walsh (208) studied the development of compulsory attendance legislation in Wisconsin. The first law of 1879 applied to children from seven to fifteen years of age for twelve weeks each year.

Bender (165) made an analysis of court decisions dealing with school attendance legislation from 1871 to 1925. The constitutionality of compulsory education laws was attacked in four cases. In each of the four, the courts favored such laws. Edwards (177) pointed out, however, that there are limits beyond which the state is not allowed to go in requiring school attendance: (a) it cannot restrict attendance to public schools exclusively; (b) no decision has been made regarding age limits; (c) it cannot force children who are ill or who live an unreasonable distance from school to attend unless transportation is provided. The right of the schoolboard to reject application for admission of children who do not meet requirements established by the state has been upheld (177). The courts have permitted local districts to refuse admittance to (a) pupils infected with contagious diseases, (b) pupils who refuse to comply with the regulations of the school necessary to good discipline and good management, (c) girls guilty of immoral conduct, (d) pupils physically unclean, (e) pupils who refuse to submit to a physical examination as a condition of entrance, (f) mental defectives, (g) physical defectives, and (h) graduates of private and parochial elementary schools who refused to take an examination for admission to high school.

Bender (165) found that the courts had upheld rules requiring regular and prompt attendance. A pupil's absence was not solely the concern of the child and his parents. Neither parents nor pastors of churches had the right, without the consent of the school authorities, to keep pupils out of school for church worship. Parents were legally bound to send written excuses to school for a pupil's absence. There are many court cases dealing with legislation governing the vaccination of school children. Early decisions permitted exclusion from school if a pupil were not vaccinated but the parents could not be punished for the child's nonattendance nor could they be compelled to provide other instruction. More recent decisions allowed exclusion but required that other instruction satisfactory to school authorities be provided.

### Conclusions

The constitutionality of compulsory attendance seems to be no longer questioned. The ages of such attendance have been extended at both upper

and lower limits during the past several decades; what the ultimate limits may be constitutionally has not been decided.

We continue to find that causes of nonattendance are not simple and easily detected factors but represent combinations in varying degrees of many social conditions and relationships not readily noted or controlled. Both the remedy and the prevention of nonattendance mean, therefore, that the best of case-study technic must be put into operation, and that programs of education affecting pupils, teachers, parents, and the community must be so developed that the social conditions underlying nonattendance may be remedied.

## B. School Progress

PHILIP A. BOYER

Practically every aspect of pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling has some immediate relation to the more restricted area designated as school progress. This term connotes the effectiveness of the educational experiences centered more or less formally in the school as a unique institution, and also of the school in its relations with the educational aspects of other societal institutions. Since the initial shock of realizing the great waste through retardation and pupil failure, measures of age-grade status have constituted one of the means for evaluating the general efficiency of the organization and operation of schools. There is, however, no evidence of increasing uniformity in the procedures for making age-grade and age-grade progress studies. There is increasing diversity and flexibility in promotional plans and wider disparity in the definition of the term "promotion." There is much exploratory activity representing a groping for instructional and organizational technics that will improve the general success of the educational process. The report of Segel (240) was timely in that he outlined procedures for the study of the general features of the grade progress of pupils.

### Age-Grade Status

Age-grade analyses continue to show decreasing percents of overage pupils in elementary schools and increasing percents of overage pupils in secondary schools. The Philadelphia public schools showed a 50 percent decrease in overage in elementary grades during the past twenty years (213) and a reduction since 1925 of the median age of pupils in Grade V by three-fourths of a year. A bulletin of the New Jersey Elementary Principals Association (243) indicated that between 1927 and 1934 the percent of overage pupils decreased in Grades I to VI, but increased in Grades VII and VIII. Among the many reports in this field, that by Nifenecker (234) for the New York City school system is outstanding. Overageness and slow progress were distinguished, and significant evidences of reduction in retardation were portrayed together with the relationship of these data

to changed promotion policy. Differences in various traits found among slow, normal, and rapid progress pupils were measured for pupils located in neighborhoods of varying socio-economic levels. In physical status, the nonretarded pupils showed a superiority over the retarded. "Low socio-economic level appeared to be associated with slow progress, while rapid school progress accompanied the higher levels of socio-economic status." Similar differences were also found in behavior status as measured by the Haggerty-Olson-Wickam Scale. The report concluded with the significant statement that "retardation is not so much a form of pupil maladjustment as it is a measure of the inadequacy of the school's program in meeting the challenge offered by the varying needs of pupils."

Brown (214) found that there was no difference in age-grade status between neurotic and normal children in Grades IV, VI, and VIII. Forty-four neurotics and 44 normals of both sexes were paired on the basis of socio-economic status as measured by the Sims Score Card. Neurotic tendencies were measured by the Brown Psychoneurotic Inventory. Although there was much underageness, due to early entrance age in all of the grades in 292 one-room rural schools in Michigan, there has been little acceleration (241). In no grade did the percent of the overage children exceed 25; yet in all the grades except Grades I and II, the percent of retarded pupils exceeded 25. These facts supported similar data for rural schools previously gathered.

Main (232) in seeking reasons for retardation concluded that achievement norms should not be based on the average ability of pupils in grades as at present constituted, but should be designed to enable the average child who entered at legal age to continue through the grades without failure. This observation was based on a study of 4,831 children within the IQ group 90 to 109 in 31 schools in Los Angeles; these children, followed thru school, constituted a large at-age group at the beginning, yet with each successive grade showed a decreasing proportion of at-age pupils. Farley (219) found that 93 percent of 422 children referred to an attendance department for truancy in Newark in 1934 were retarded in their grade placement. The median IQ of the group was 82; only 10 percent had IQ's above 100. From the case records of boys who registered at the Los Angeles Bureau of the Federal Transient Service, Outland (237) found that 58 percent of 3,352 transient boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty years had completed the ninth grade, and 12 percent of the total were high-school graduates. The total accelerated number was 512; the total at-grade, 889; and the total retarded, 1,923.

### Promotion Progress of Pupils

School systems are giving more attention to the relationship of promotion practices to the development of each pupil. The most common characteristic of presentday promotion plans is that they differ one from the other. Otto (236) found no united trends in the promotion policies of thirty-five

representative school districts of northern Illinois. The N.E.A. Educational Research Service received so many inquiries that it undertook a questionnaire study in June 1938 and reported in November 1938 (233) on the promotion practices in 366 city school systems. While these cities were equally divided on the question of annual and semiannual promotion policies, nearly two-thirds of the larger cities favored the semiannual plan. There was growing recognition that neither of these plans alone is likely to develop the freedom and flexibility necessary to the attainment of continuous progress. Some cities are dividing the six-year period of elementary education into two three-year units. Others divide elementary education into three two-year cycles. Rochester, New York, is organized on a continuous progress plan with an integrated curriculum developed around centers of interest. Special emphasis upon the need of individual adjustments during the school term, regardless of the length of term adopted by the system, was reported.

Wheat (245) abandoned annual promotions in Grades I to III and showed by achievement test results that individual adjustments enable pupils to progress in proportion to their developing mental abilities. Akridge (210) compared the mental age and achievement of pupils in Grade IV of one group of schools characterized by irregular school progress with another group of schools characterized by regular progress. He found no significant difference in the average level or the homogeneity of mental age and achievement test scores. A cooperative study of low-promotion and high-promotion rate schools in Philadelphia (213) showed that important factors determining promotion rates are mental ability of pupils, class size, part-time attendance, and differences in the promotional philosophy of principals and teachers. Coulson (211) reported a grade organization in Albany in which primary pupils were grouped according to chronological age and achievement. Although age groups were always in separate rooms, achievement groups of the same age were usually under one teacher. All pupils progressed at their own rate.

Nifenecker (234) reported that if age six to seven be considered normal for entrance to the first grade, 52 percent were of normal age, 43 percent were underage, and 5 percent were overage in the New York schools. After 7 terms 53 percent of the 785 pupils considered were in Grade IVB, 24 percent made slower progress, while 23 percent made more rapid progress. In 61 percent of the cases the slow progress pupils were below the achievement standard for their grade, while 57 percent of the normal progress group and 79 percent of the rapid progress group showed achievement above the standard requirement of their grade. For the slow group the average IQ was 86; for the normal group, 107; while for the rapid progress group, 122. Of the retarded, 54 percent showed more than two physical defects compared with 29 percent for the rapid groups. Differences in attendance at school between retarded and not retarded were small. Both socio-economic status and behavior were better for the nonretarded group.

Herr (222) found no significant difference in high-school achievement as measured by standardized tests between a group that completed both the seventh and eighth grades in one year and a normal progress group. This finding may indicate the failure of the tests to measure adequately the educational products. Engle (218) reported that acceleration in the elementary school did not seem to handicap a person educationally, vocationally, or socially five years later. Flexibility in promotional plans was described in other studies (226, 239, 246).

### Failures in the Elementary School

From studies of the extent and incidence of failure, research has turned its major attention to prevention. Kyte (227) found that 52 percent of the teacher-assigned causes of failure among 1,485 first-grade pupils in California occurred in the cases of pupils with normal intelligence. Most important among the causes were (a) slow learning rate, (b) immaturity, (c) irregular attendance, (d) poor health, but not absent, (e) low mentality, (f) weakness in reading, (g) lack of application and attention, and (h) speaking little or no English. Arthur (212) reported that the average repeater of Grade I learned no more in two years than did the average non-repeater of the same mental age in one year. There were sixty pupils who repeated Grade I. The writer suggested that it might be wiser to postpone the teaching of reading until the individual was mature enough intellectually to profit by it, and in the meantime to direct classroom effort toward the enlarging of experience and the building of vocabulary. Farley (219) reported that with groups of doubtful pupils equated on the basis of chronological and mental ages, a promoted group made a greater gain in reading in Grades II and III and a lesser gain in Grades IV and V than a similar group which was not promoted. Plans for reducing school failure were given in several reports (223, 224, 238).

### Failures in High School and College

Lafferty (229) indicated that lack of effort and mental slowness were the reasons given by teachers for failures in 49 percent of the 6,047 cases in 15 senior high schools in 15 Texas cities. It was also found that about 24 percent of the failures were due to mental deficiencies and 76 percent to causes more essentially the responsibility of the schools. Irregular attendance and poor health as reasons for pupil failure were listed in ten of eleven representative studies reporting the teacher's reasons for pupil failure (230). Dislike of teacher as a reason for pupil failure was listed in all five of the studies reporting the pupil's own reason for having failed.

Douglass and Collins (216) found that junior high-school Negroes of 110 IQ or more who were not doing satisfactory work had a lower socioeconomic status than their successful classmates of equal IQ. Lafferty (228) found that the size of the high school in Texas had little influence on the subjects which caused the greatest percent of failure. This finding resulted

from the study of 11,916 pupils who failed in one or more of the ten most common subjects in fifteen high schools. Douglass and Campbell (215) reported that failing junior high-school pupils were more than a year older, were absent more frequently by about two or three weeks a semester, were almost as bright on the average, but included fewer superior students than the nonfailing students. Johnson (225), in a study of high-school failures in St. Louis, reported that most early withdrawals had IQ's below 100, and suggested radical adjustments in requirements to improve the holding power of the schools. Plans for reducing failure have been reported (220, 221, 231).

In studies on the causes of failures at the University of Georgia, Edwards (217) found that the main defect appeared to be English. This was determined on the basis of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination in which the lowest grades were in those tests which required a knowledge of English words. O'Conner (235) studied the mental aptitude of one hundred freshmen in Stevens Institute of Technology. He reported that the higher the mentality the more successful was the student in college up to a limit beyond which the gifted members were less successful than their less able classmates. A technic to prevent failure was discussed by Strabel (242).

### Conclusion

Research studies in the field of school progress showed recognition of the fact that mass progress can come only as detailed technics are perfected for advancing the development of each pupil. Studies of school progress made their original contribution by disclosing failure and educational waste. It was in the recognition of this waste that personnel work, guidance, and counseling were born. Recent school progress studies have appropriated the technics of guidance and counseling in their emphasis upon the unique qualities of each individual. General school progress is based on the best possible adjustment of each individual.

### C. School Marks

HAROLD H. BIXLER

#### Factors Affecting Teachers' Marks

Dissatisfaction with marking systems has increased. Much has been written, but there has been very little experimentation during the past three years. Owen (258), in reporting the conclusions of forty-seven teachers, found that marks were determined by the following factors: (a) effort made by the pupil, (b) successful performance in examination, (c) attention and interest in class work, (d) instructor's estimate of oral recitations, and (e) self-reliance of pupil. Tibbetts (261) proposed thirteen criteria for a reporting system as follows: A good marking system (a) requires a

minimum of clerical work; (b) is one to which the community is educated; (c) promotes understanding at home and in the school; (d) informs of progress—physical, social, and mental; (e) expresses in simple terms the philosophy underlying service rendered by schools—and goal of such service; (f) includes adjustments to school life as well as to school subjects; (g) sets up standards of value of work for its own sake rather than for emoluments; (h) suitable to age level; (i) understandable to the child; (j) includes objective and subjective material; (k) facilitates early and proper adjustment of the child to his new situation; (l) considers the child as an individual as well as the member of a group; and (m) indicates scholastic achievement, individual adjustment, and social growth. Book-walter (250) also set up criteria for evaluating a marking system in physical education.

Although there seemed to be too many systems in marking, Adams (247), with others, felt that standardization was not desirable. Many schools, particularly those that are of a progressive type, told about their experiments in using descriptive reports. Zyve (264) pointed out that the plan emphasized group and individual development through school contacts and training, taking into consideration health, home, handicaps, and former privileges and advantages. Harrington (253) indicated that two-thirds of the schools studied by the National Survey of Secondary Education had changed their marking systems in the past ten years. He reported that 100 different marking systems were used in the 258 schools studied.

### New Developments and Experimental Studies

Beggs (249) sent questionnaires to 883 families to whom new type report cards had been sent. He found after six years' experience that diagnostic letters gave a much clearer report than the printed form card. Such a letter was feasible if parents were taken into complete confidence by the school. Both parents and children reported that they preferred such a letter to a formal report card. Geyer (252) stressed the idea of sending to the home letters about pupil's progress, copies of rating sheet, and representative samples of work. Hovde (254) outlined plans for evaluation of report cards in terms of achievement of objectives, work habits, written and oral expression, responsibility, and care in personal appearance. Wrinkle (262, 263) reported that the secondary school of the Colorado State College of Education abandoned the conventional letter-making system five years ago and has used a printed form since. Wrinkle's article listed eighteen generalizations, some of which follow:

Harm, rather than good is likely to result from the periodic receipt of reports showing inferior achievement, if the student has done his best, or from reports showing superior achievement, if the student has not done his best. . . . The form of the report is not of fundamental significance. A blank sheet of paper in the hands of an intelligent teacher is perhaps the best form for use in reporting. . . . The writing of adequate detailed statements regarding each student for report purposes is not feasible for teachers having the usual number of students enrolled in classes.

Wrinkle reported various checklists developed for the office records of ability, interest, effort, and achievement. The checking may be done by the teacher in conference with the students or they might be checked independently. It had not been determined whether in all cases they should be sent to the parents.

Clark (251) found that he graded his students slightly higher than the students graded themselves. Ninety-one students enrolled in the mathematics and chemistry courses offered by Clark were given grades ranging from "A" to "E." Seventy-two percent received exactly the same letter grade they thought they had earned, 15 percent received higher grades, and 12 percent received lower grades than they had expected. Only one student failed to estimate his grade within one letter. These figures compare favorably with those reported by Reinhardt (260) in a similar study conducted at Eastern Illinois State Teachers College.

### D. School Records and Reports

HANS C. GORDON

This section is limited to the recording and reporting of data which are essential for pupil personnel services. Additional consideration is given in Chapter IV to the use of personnel records in guidance and counseling. Cumulative records for the individual pupil rather than massed records for groups are emphasized. Reports in this field consisted largely of summaries of present practice. There were relatively few studies of the values of the various recorded items or studies of the actual amount of use of specific types of data. The trend of literature was to emphasize nonacademic records.

#### Recording a Variety of Traits

Diederich (271) listed sixteen types of evidence which should be recorded: personal pattern of goals, records of significant experiences, reading records, records of cultural experiences, records of creative expression, anecdotal records, records of conferences, records of excuses and explanations, records of tests and examinations, health and family history, oral English diagnoses, minutes of student affairs, personality ratings and descriptions, questionnaires, records of courses and activities, and administrative records.

Dunn (272) and Strang (288) suggested the inclusion of a pupil autobiography each term; Strang provided a suggested form for recording (see also Chapter IV, Section E, "The Autobiography and Life History"). Giles (274) listed twelve devices used in recording pupil behavior at Ohio State University School. Notes dictated at the end of the day seemed to be an effective way of keeping adequate records of pupil personality growth. Paterson (278) gave a brief review of the development of recording behavior data for guidance purposes. Pratt (280) reported the behavior

description of individuals under headings such as, information assimilated, interests centered in people, emotional satisfaction, etc. Randall (281) reported a development of anecdotal records into a behavior journal; this is a cumulative individual record of each child's significant behavior.

Under the chairmanship of Smith (286, 287) of the Commission on the Relation of School and College (of the Progressive Education Association), the Committee on Reports and Records studied 250 terms used in schools, colleges, and social agencies to describe people. The analysis of personality or character traits developed by this committee for the schools of the Eight Year Experiment was under six headings: (a) responsibility-dependability; (b) creativeness and imagination; (c) influence; (d) inquiring mind; (e) open-mindedness; and (f) power and habit of analysis. Each of these was further analyzed into types; for example, under (a) responsibility-dependability, were listed the following types: responsible and resourceful, conscientious, general dependability, selective dependability, unreliable, irresponsible. Detailed descriptions of individual behavior were given under each of these heads. In such records an effort was made to classify the pupil according to type rather than to rate him, with the necessary implication that one type of personality or character is always more to be desired than another.

### Value of Pupil Records

Researches into the value of records were few. Williamson (294) investigated, for the purposes of guidance in college, the value of certain items of personal history other than scores or marks. After selecting criterion groups of good and poor scholars on the basis of honor-point ratios, he studied 483 items in the personal histories of the students. The results of his study indicated need of care in the interpretation of personal history records. For example, one of the characteristics of high-scholarship women was an expressed dislike of science and social science in high school, while the low-scholarship group had no recorded dislikes. On the basis of his criterion groups, score values were assigned to each individual based on personal history data other than scores and marks. Checking his study by attempting to predict ratings for another group of students has shown that such scores have but little relationship with scholarship or any other factor measured in his study. His conclusion was that these various personal history items were but crude indicators of what was measured in a more refined way by the Minnesota College Aptitude Test and high-school scholarship records.

It may or may not be a reasonable assumption that when a record is collected it will be used. However, there was very little reported study of the actual amount of use of pupil records. Boyer (265: 22-30) reported that elementary teachers and principals used records to advantage in following up remedial health defects, in adjustment for character growth, and in organization of learning experiences. Traxler (290) studied the use of

test records in 153 schools, of which 140 were independent schools. The more frequent uses were: reporting to parents, 90 percent of the schools; corrective and remedial treatment, 96 percent; studying the strengths and weaknesses of classes, 86 percent; comparing achievement among schools, 84 percent; evaluation of instruction, 78 percent; recommending to college, 78 percent; pupil placement, 61 percent. Among the less frequent uses were: homogeneous grouping, 44 percent; planning special programs for high ability pupils, 40 percent; research, 17 percent.

### **Record Forms and Practices in Current Use**

Brooks (267), studying 516 cumulative record forms in California, found 632 different items in use. The median number of items was found to be 42 entered on a card 6 in. x 8 in. Forty-nine percent of the school systems included ratings on one or more personality traits. The median number of such traits was 5. Eighty-five percent of the trait items were restricted to 23 different entries. Segel's study (284, 285) was based on the record forms of 177 cities or districts described as progressive. Cumulative record forms for 119 of these cities were found to provide for only one segment of the school system at a time. Thirty-five had provision on one form for all grades. Half or more made provisions for the following types of entries in all schools: scholarship (marks), school progress, attendance, entrance and withdrawal, home conditions and family history, intelligence test results, social and character ratings, health, space for notes, and achievement test results. Extracurriculum activities were entered upon the records of more than half of the junior and senior high schools. In the 177 record systems, 103 different character traits were noted. Most records required from three to eight traits. Those most frequently mentioned are cooperation, industry, leadership, and personal appearance. Uhlken (291) studied the practices in 49 colleges and universities. Twenty of these institutions did not copy nonacademic permanent records. Nonacademic records kept in the other institutions include family and personal data, high-school activities, college activities, personality inventory, self-support in college, offices in college, outstanding achievements in college. Other descriptions of practice were given by Heninberg (275) for colleges and universities for Negroes; McClure (276) for college records kept in "Domesday Book"; and Van Alstyne (292) for an adaptation of the Educational Records Bureau Card for elementary schools. Chandler (269) described the records for the General College of the University of Florida which does not require any specific high-school units for admission.

### **Time Required To Prepare Records**

An investigation of the amount of out-of-class time required by teachers in preparing records was reported by Boyer (265: 21-22), showing that senior high-school teachers in one city required an average of one hour and

twenty-five minutes per week to keep the printed school records for a homeroom class of forty to forty-five pupils. This did not include the record keeping done in class as a regular part of the homeroom and subject-class periods. Giles (274) reported that he spends an average of ten hours per week record making in the Ohio State University School.

### **Simplifying Record Keeping**

Mort (277) recommended that "provision should be made for a periodic drawing-off of important aspects of these records to be used in an analysis of the current needs of individual pupils." One suggestion for the simplification of records was made by Zyve (295) that the records of children should be kept by groups, reporting on one record for the group all essential group experiences, while recording on the individual records for the child only those things peculiar to the individual. Sage (283) suggested the keeping of records on transparent stock so that blueprints could be made when copies were needed. The use of rubber stamps and Hollerith cards is also described by the same writer. Webb (293) reported that considerable time is saved in class through the use of a transparent folder covering a seating chart. Temporary records for the teacher were written directly upon the transparent folder and later erased. Brown (268) reported that the problem of duplication can be avoided by the use of a central file accessible to all members of the faculty. Townsend (289) suggested the use of movable files so that the complete record may be made available at any place. Preparation of achievement graphs and records of test results may be simplified by standard score systems reported by Boyer (266) and Flanagan (273).

## **E. Educational Adjustments to Individual Differences**

PHILIP A. BOYER

Within the organization of the classroom and the school, the areas of adjustment to individual pupils are individualized instruction, grouping for effective learning, and remedial teaching. Research in these major fields involves complexities that make difficult the adequate control of significant variables. Consequently, much of the literature is descriptive in nature and almost wholly tentative in conclusion. There is interesting evidence of a wholesome tendency toward a more complete study of all the conditions influencing an individual as opposed to the practice of drawing conclusions for individuals from a study of a few characteristics.

### **Individualized Instruction**

Among the studies in this field were those on the unit plan (320, 321, 326, 327), the activity program (309, 313, 316), the adjustment teacher

(317, 318), a diagnostic and remedial technic to improve reading (328), a time-flexible plan of college administration (322), and time freedom in instruction in French in college (310). In the unit plan pupils worked at their own speeds. After the completion of the minimum requirements, each pupil had the opportunity to do additional work on individual or group projects. Remedial work was assigned when necessary. Pupils learned arithmetic better under the activity program than under the conventional classroom procedure (313). Motivation was an important factor in the success of an activity program (316). Satisfaction and success were closely related (309).

In 1936 Chicago introduced the adjustment-teacher plan (317) for helping pupils in the elementary schools. The teacher was trained to assemble all child-study data, study the child and interpret his differences as found through a testing program, select pupils for remedial teaching, prepare remedial instruction material, and assist with remedial teaching for at least thirty minutes every day. Rapid extension of this plan at the request of principals attests its success. The number of adjustment teachers increased from 100 to 275 in the school year ended June 1938 (318).

A technic of teaching reading was reported to improve ability to understand directions and to appreciate the general significance of a paragraph (328). A diagnosis of reading ability, difficulty, and interest was followed by the organization of reading matter into units for groups with similar problems. In one college, the regular course of four years has been replaced by a flexible three- to five-year course (322). Achievement under an individualized system of instruction in French was indicated to be superior to that under the usual classroom methods of instruction (310). Under individualized instruction, the students reported to the classroom for checking progress, for remedial work, or for consultation with the instructor.

### **Grouping for Effective Learning**

If learning groups are formed on the basis of IQ alone, the range of chronological ages in each group is great; likewise, if groups are made on the basis of chronological age alone, the groups include a wide range of IQ's. Hence, some schools group by both IQ and age (298). For example, after a group is selected on the basis of IQ, it is divided on the basis of chronological age, so that neither the range for IQ's nor the range for chronological age is large. In elementary schools differentiated courses of study for the dull, average, and bright are used in Cleveland (296). In the Philadelphia minimum course of study in geography for Grades III to VI, the less able pupils were given a simple aim and the development of the lesson was taken from the immediate experiences of the children. The more able pupils had additional reading, oral reports, illustrative materials, field trips, and collections (296).

The effectiveness of ability grouping procedures is upheld in one study (324) and denied in two (299, 314). The relative effectiveness of three

plans for grouping was studied at Detroit (324). The vertical plan, in which all children of the same brightness but not necessarily of the same grade were grouped together, was the most effective; the plan in which pupils were grouped by half grades and classified as X, Y, or Z according to brightness was second; the least effective method was the mass-instruction plan in which an attempt was made to teach all pupils in the same way. Groups were equated in significant factors and comparisons were made on the basis of test results and judgments of teachers and outside observers.

Breidenstine (299) found that pupils in Grades II to IX grouped according to ability showed about the same progress as those taught in the traditional way. Hartill (314) reported no significant difference in gains made in arithmetic, reading, or grade level between 1,374 elementary children as a whole in New York City when grouped homogeneously and these same children when grouped heterogeneously. Half were grouped homogeneously during the first term and the other half heterogeneously. During the second term the procedures for the halves were reversed. In high school a reorganization of English instruction was found to be successful in reducing the number of errors in written English and in increasing scores in English usage tests (311). This reorganization treats English expression and appreciation as separate subjects. Pupils were grouped by ability in English expression, measured by tests of mechanics, without regard to grade placement. Pupils in both high and low ability groups in high-school mathematics appeared twelve years later to be equally well-adjusted vocationally, socially, and personally in their respective environments (323).

Slow students, when homogeneously grouped, did not do better in classes of thirty than in classes of sixty, either from the standpoint of mastery of subjectmatter as measured by objective tests or in the development of desirable attitudes as measured by the Hand-Carley Student Reaction Form (307). It may be that both groups were too large. A method of grouping which remedied poor achievement of high-school pupils of high ability was judged to be successful by the teachers (304). The pupils were first divided into three or more groups in a given grade on the basis of IQ. Later these groups were subdivided according to achievement in the given subject into high, average, and low achievement groups. A prevocational course designed to adjust the content of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades to the needs of retarded pupils was introduced into Philadelphia junior high schools (300). The program of activities consists of practical arts, problems of living, English, appreciation, physical and health education, and clubs and guidance.

The complexity of administration for grouping was borne out by Clark (303) and Stenquist (325), who obtained effective results only through a completely cooperative organization of all the branches of the system with regard to methods and materials of instruction. Studies on grouping for effective learning on the college level show the necessity of some type of individualization (308), and point the way to modified methods (302).

### Remedial Teaching

Remedial teaching procedures which do not require extensive reorganization within the elementary school are reported in three studies (305, 315, 317). Three differentiated procedures were reported by Durrell (306): First, separate instruction was provided for small groups with a teacher specially trained and a room equipped for remedial work. Second, instruction was given to children who spent the entire day in one classroom with a special teacher and equipment. Emphasis was placed on individualized instruction in reading, writing, spelling, and language. In the third type of organization, group work was provided in the regular classroom by the regular teacher. The greatest gain reported was made in the third type of organization.

The advantages of a remedial grouping in a platoon type of organization were demonstrated (305). The selection for the remedial classes was on the bases of teacher judgment and on low ability as measured by standardized tests. An activity program integrated with the homeroom subjects was provided for the remedial groups. Senior high-school experiments dealing with remedial reading have been conducted in New York City (297). The number of failures in high-school subjects in March compared with the number of failures in June for the pupils coached in reading gave an improvement of 16 percent. Three different procedures were used: (a) pupils were withdrawn from regular English classes; (b) pupils were withdrawn from study or free periods; (c) remedial reading instruction alternated each fortnight with regular English instruction. The class groups approximated four to five pupils each.

Attacks upon the problem of inefficient reading in college were reported for two institutions. In one case (312) reading tests and eye-movement records were made the basis of individual and group conferences concerning specific defects in reading and study habits. Advice and practice were given to overcome difficulties. No report of the results was given. In another instance (326), the students were provided with a discussion of the possibilities of reading improvement, a description of the different types of reading, and fifteen principles for improving reading. They were directed to measure their own improvement in reading rate and were provided with necessary forms. The reported increase was 35 percent in average reading rate over a period of twenty days. Further research is necessary to determine the amount of permanent improvement.

### F. Special Schools and Classes

JOHN J. LEE

Research in special education has dealt with a multiplicity of problems since 1935. In the *Review* for April 1936 (348) Heck stated, "We need better evaluations of the work being done by special classes; much more

experimentation in method; a better testing of the different ways of organizing to educate the atypical child; and continued research on causation if we are to develop the preventive side of the work." Progress in all these directions has been made, but emphasis has been given also in two other directions: (a) on the number of exceptional children and on educational facilities, and (b) on reviewing earlier studies and making digests available through publication.

### Extent of the Problem and of Facilities

Foster (342) reported that for 1935-36, 371,587 children in 45 states were enrolled in special classes. The public schools in 776 cities furnished instruction for 297,307 atypical children and employed 15,155 teachers. Public and private residential schools provided for 74,280 children and employed 5,798 teachers. Instructional costs were \$21,921,649 and total costs were \$66,069,314.

Of the 776 cities, 161 provided special classes for 7,251 blind or partially-seeing pupils out of an estimated total of 65,000; 168 cities enrolled 9,318 deaf or hard-of-hearing out of 400,000; 643 cities enrolled 99,621 mentally deficient out of 500,000; 45 cities enrolled 12,653 behavior problem children out of 750,000; 150 cities had classes for 23,517 delicate children out of 300,000; 301 cities enrolled 24,865 crippled children out of 100,000; 123 cities furnished speech correction training for 116,770 out of an estimated 1,000,000 children; and 14 cities maintained special classes for 3,009 gifted children out of a total of 500,000. Special classes were available for only about one tenth of the estimated number of atypical children; also there was wide variation in the number of cities which provided for each of the different types of exceptional children.

Berry (332) investigated the number of mentally retarded, speech defective, and behavior children found among 508,000 out of the 1,276,300 children in Ohio public schools. Hicker (350) made a statewide survey of all physically handicapped children in California, and the Louisiana State Department of Education (359) made a census of the handicapped in that state.

### General Reviews of Research

Martens (360) prepared an annotated bibliography of all the major reference and research materials in the field. Good (343) prepared a valuable digest and summary of the major research for each type of atypical children. Lindeau (358) prepared a "Guide to the Literature on the Handicapped Child." Supplementing these summaries Scates (372) presented an outline for the direction of future research, and for the essential information pertaining to any individual or type of handicapped child. These contributions mark a significant advance. Research findings are now more readily available than at any prior time, and the direction for future research is pointed with clarity and at a higher level.

### **The Blind and Partially-Seeing**

Bradway (337) used the Social Maturity Scale with 92 pupils who were deaf, 73 who were blind, and 23 crippled children to determine which kind of disability was the greatest social handicap. The number studied is too limited for reliable conclusions, but from results the blind appeared to be most handicapped and the deaf next most handicapped; neither blindness nor deafness constituted a permanent bar to social expression or performance.

For testing blind children Maxfield (364) advised that the Hayes-Binet Intelligence and possibly the Ohio Classification Tests are sufficiently standardized to be of service; that possibly the Stanford Achievement Test as used at Perkins Institution is satisfactory; and that Seashore's Musical Talent Test is well adapted for use. In method, experimentation on teaching contractions to beginning braille readers and use of different kinds of braille slates are stimulating in their possibilities but are yet inconclusive.

### **The Crippled**

Reports showed that from 1930-36 the number of states providing for crippled children increased from 22 to 30, the number of cities from 81 to 301, and the number of pupils enrolled from 13,120 to 24,865. Despite this rapid extension less than 25 percent of the seriously crippled in the country are yet receiving special educational opportunities (342). Angove (329) found 707 totally handicapped home-bound cripples in need of custodial care in Michigan alone. Among 9,530 crippled children in California, Hicker (350) reported that 2,386 or 25 percent were crippled by infantile paralysis; 779 or 8 percent by bone diseases; 393 or 4 percent by other diseases; 1,767 or 17 percent by congenital deformities; 1,124 or 12 percent by accidents; and 3,081 or 33 percent by other unclassified causes.

Studies were few pertaining to the educational progress or to the mental and emotional characteristics of crippled children. In rural areas the educational problem has hardly been touched except in Ohio and Maryland. Further study and development of programs are greatly needed in these directions.

### **The Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing**

Newlee (368) reported that among 3,744 deaf children in nineteen schools the leading causes of deafness were spinal meningitis, scarlet fever, diphtheria, influenza, and other infectious diseases originating in the nose and throat. For prevention more effective control of all infectious diseases was advised. Pintner (370) studied the fears and wishes of deaf children and he, Brunschwig (338), and Habbe (346) studied personality factors and adjustments. Howes (352) called attention to the fact that ordinary

intelligence and achievement tests presuppose normal language and reading ability. He found that with such tests deaf children showed a retardation of from two to five years in proportion to their language handicap; but that not more than 25 percent of apparent retardation can be accounted for on the basis of intelligence. Martens (361) directed a study of 19,541 deaf and hard-of-hearing persons in the occupational world to obtain data on suitable vocations for vocational guidance and training. Howes (352), Lane (357), and LaGrone (356) studied educational factors of academic success, and Heider (349) summarized the field with abstracts of scientific studies.

### **The Mentally Retarded**

Berry (332) found from a questionnaire reporting teachers' judgments that 3.4 percent of the children were doing unsatisfactory work due to inferior intelligence, and that surveys by competent specialists usually show that not less than 2 percent of school children are so retarded that they should be placed in special classes. But Pertsch (369) used objective measures with two groups of retarded children, one segregated and the other not segregated for instructional purposes. He found the development of the nonsegregated group superior to that of the segregated group. His findings were contrary to a similar study by Engel in Detroit several years ago in which she found that the segregated group made one and one-half times as much progress as the nonsegregated group. Further study of this problem is needed.

Pritchard (371) made an intensive study of the mechanical ability of subnormal boys. Stogdill (373) reported on the use of certain behavior adjustment technics in use with retarded children, Gordon (344) investigated retardation in relation to endocrine functioning, and Bradway (336) studied their social maturity.

### **The Defective in Speech**

Studies in this field have dealt with diagnosis and with the characteristics of stutterers and with stuttering. Eisenson (341) investigated the perseverating tendency of stutterers; Johnson (353) reported on changes in handedness; Knott (355) studied the psychological factor of attention at the moment of stuttering, Van Riper (375) the growth of stuttering spasms, Travis (374) on diagnosis, and Meyers (366) on aphasia; and Hahn (347) prepared a compendium on theories and therapies in stuttering.

### **Behavior Problems**

Baker and Stullken (330) prepared a review of research in this field and summarized the facts known pertaining to causation, diagnosis, duration of malbehavior, nature of delinquency, and remedial methods. Baker (331) estimated that serious maladjustment cases make up at least 3 per-

cent of the school population. The trend in diagnosis appeared away from the unit concept of causation and in the direction of using rating scales such as the Wickman-Olson-Haggerty and Baker-Traphagen ratings which provide for the complex interaction of multiple causal factors.

Campbell (339) analyzed the elementary teacher's treatment of behavior problems. Holmes (351) investigated the disciplinary classes in Washington, D. C.; Meinken (365) made a study of problem students in a New York high school; Dunlop (340) investigated the subsequent careers of nonacademic boys; and Bowler (334) made an intensive study of institutional treatment and also a followup of 751 delinquent boys.

Increasingly it has been recognized that more emphasis should be given to prevention, that causes are social and complex, and that school programs are too brief in time and too limited in facilities for adequate guidance, placement, followup, and supervision.

### **Miscellaneous Special Fields**

Betts (333) and Gray (345) have added important research in relation to reading disabilities. Kimball (354) made extensive and valuable studies pertaining to the treatment and education of epileptics. Marinus (363) made a similar study and contribution pertaining to endocrine disorders. Myers (367) studied the incidence of first infection type of tuberculosis, and Martens (362) reported on the location and extension of training facilities for special class teachers.

### **Summary and Recommendation for Future Research**

Studies on number of children and extent of facilities emphasized again the newness of the field. There is continued and urgent need for additional facts and for new knowledge throughout the entire field including prevention, causation, diagnosis, remedial treatment, improved instructional procedures, and administrative organization. Extreme care is needed in setting up studies and in evaluation of programs to guard against unreliable conclusions.

## CHAPTER III

### Programs of Guidance and Counseling<sup>1</sup>

ARTHUR J. JONES, with the cooperation of D. L. HARLEY and ESTHER LLOYD-JONES

IT HAS BEEN DIFFICULT to find research investigations dealing with programs of guidance. Available materials afford few experimental studies that throw light upon the kinds of programs which are most effective. Several studies attempted to evaluate certain isolated elements of a program. The conclusions were of doubtful value because the elements singled out for study were merely parts of a general program and had meaning only as they were considered with reference to other parts of the particular program. Nearly all the studies are surveys of practices and most of these are too restricted in scope and too lacking in research technics to make them of value even in revealing common practices or trends.

Among the causes underlying this lack of adequate research are the following:

1. The objectives of guidance programs are not clearly defined or commonly accepted.
2. Many of the objectives are intangible and probably will remain so.
3. The methods of measuring a program of guidance either as related to the institution as a whole or to the individual who is guided are not readily apparent or fully agreed upon.

Probably the majority of research workers begin with the assumption that one cannot evaluate guidance in general, that the only way to evaluate is to analyze and evaluate by parts or elements, perhaps by finding whether a particular cause produces a particular result. There is, on the other hand, gradually appearing a feeling that there are certain outcomes that can never be measured adequately by this process of analysis; that one must measure the effect of an entire program upon the entire individual. The organismic philosophy may suggest clues to new methods of research that will be better suited to evaluate guidance and to aid in studying many other difficult phases of education.

#### A. Secondary Education

ARTHUR J. JONES

##### Surveys

One of the most extensive of the surveys of guidance programs in secondary schools was that conducted by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (376). Two hundred public and private secondary

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 236.

schools were investigated. The visiting committees found many different kinds of programs, some simple and some complex. On the whole, the guidance service seemed to be less well organized than other phases of secondary-school activities. This observation was corroborated by the opinions of the schools themselves.

On the basis of the criteria set up by the Cooperative Study, there seemed to be a relationship between size of school and quality of the guidance service but this was so slight as to be negligible. Private schools ranked somewhat higher than public schools, possibly because of more specific aims. The guidance elements regarded as outstanding in these schools were, in the order of frequency: personal guidance, teaching staff, educational guidance, contact with homes, conferences and interviews, pupil activities, vocational guidance, and trained counselors. On the other hand, a number of these same elements were sometimes mentioned as least adequately provided. Records and tests were also included as elements that were least adequate.

The study by Brunner, Lorge, and Price (378) showed the general situation in one hundred and forty village schools in scattered areas throughout the United States. The same schools were studied in 1924, 1930, and 1936. In 1924 none of the high schools in this sample of American agricultural communities offered guidance, and at the time of the survey of 1930 only five had introduced this work. Between 1930 and 1932, the list was increased by twelve high schools, and by 1936 fifty additional schools were providing guidance. At this time four-fifths of the Middle Atlantic communities, two-thirds of those in the Middlewest, and less than a third of those in the South and Far West were offering guidance as part of their educational function. The types of guidance given varied greatly. Only three schools out of the one hundred and forty studied had records in any way adequate for guidance purposes. The organization of the guidance program was usually very simple. In only one or two schools was there found evidence of a well-organized, complete program, with full-time counselor, guidance committee, and curriculum adjustments.

A number of masters' theses surveyed the guidance program of states or communities (377, 379-387). These studies found the same variation in functions and organization as that revealed in the two surveys (376, 378) above described. Some programs seemed to be functioning well with practically no organization, while other systems were elaborate in their organization. Probably the most common elements in the programs studied are record keeping (of a kind), issuance of curriculums and bulletins, maintaining reference shelves of data regarding colleges and professional and occupational material, orientation or survey courses, and counseling.

### **Trends**

Possibly the most significant trend is in the greatly increased interest in guidance apparent in the secondary schools, public and private, in all

parts of the country; this is shown by the number of schools that are introducing some part of a program of guidance for the first time and by many others that are developing more complete programs from simple beginnings. The trend in guidance thinking seems to be toward the organic approach, toward the consideration of the problems of the individual student as a complex unity rather than as made up of separate parts—as cultural, vocational, emotional, and civic. There is much emphasis upon the vocational but equal attention is being given to the cultural, to personal adjustment, and to health. The trend in organization, while not pronounced, seems to be toward (a) a guidance committee having general responsibility ✓ for the policies of the program; (b) a trained director of guidance whose function is that of stimulation, coordination, and education of the teaching staff to the meaning of guidance; (c) a group of specialists in different ✓ aspects of guidance giving part time to counseling; and (d) a larger emphasis upon the homeroom as an important factor in the guidance work. ✓

### Needed Research

The evaluation of guidance that is most needed at present is the determination of the effect upon entire individuals of a program of guidance whose functions are clearly defined and whose objectives are definitely set up. Such an evaluation probably calls for some form of case study of the same individuals over a period of years and of a detailed description of all the elements in the program of the school. Until we come to think of a guidance program as a unified whole directed toward assisting the entire ✓ individual we shall be groping aimlessly; we shall still be looking eagerly for some method of teaching a class in occupations or of assisting the students in choice of courses, only to find that the method which worked elsewhere does not work with us because the conditions and the individuals guided are different, or the functions and objectives are not the same.

## B. Higher Education

ESTHER LLOYD-JONES

### Surveys and Evaluations

A survey by Williams (433) of 107 institutions of higher learning to discover the present practices of offering guidance showed two institutions offering none. He found among the remaining 105 that those officers who gave advice and guidance outside of and in addition to regular classroom work were deans of colleges, faculty advisers, deans of the student body, personnel officers, and those offering orientation courses. Besides these there were a few among 16 other groups including physicians, the major professor in each department, and all college teachers. The topics upon which extra-class guidance were offered included the choice of major courses, the dropping of courses, matters of health, personal conduct, use

of leisure, and placement in ability groups. A majority of the colleges reported orientation courses.

A survey of the content of programs in freshman week (400) sampled 168 schools in 47 states. It found 23 schools reporting no programs. Among the remainder, only three activities (registration, entrance tests, and address of welcome) were common to 90 percent of the colleges. Activities used by 50 percent were related to registration, social life, college mores, use of college library, and rules. Over half the schools used test results for later guidance.

A study of the problems in personnel work (398) submitted by 59 institutions scattered over the western states listed 241. Two hundred and eight of these fall into eight classifications: organization of programs and vocational guidance; academic; social guidance and adjustment; records and research; mental hygiene; selection and admission; and qualifications and selection of workers. Fourteen schools reported no problems. Wrenn (436) summarized his two-year intensive effort to "determine the actual status of college students so that personnel procedures and appropriate curriculums can be devised on college and university campuses for the education of the whole person, emphasizing focus upon student rather than upon subject to be taught." A class of 500 freshmen furnished the basis for this study. Courses of study caused students the most problems; religious difficulties were second. He concluded that the problem of counseling demands more thoroughly organized personnel departments and wisely trained workers. The findings of the Committee on Revisions in Gardner's survey (399) "for the purpose of investigating the degree to which the provisions for student personnel service are associated with educational excellence in higher education," resulted in setting up eleven general divisions: admission of students, orientation, student records, educational and vocational counseling, counseling about intimate personal affairs, extracurriculum activities, loans, scholarships and grants of aid, health service, housing and boarding of students, and placement and student discipline. Gardner selected the ten of the fifty-seven colleges that were judged to be making the best all-round provision for personnel service and the ten that were poorest in this respect. A more detailed analysis of each of these extreme groups showed a wide variation in the adequacy with which they were providing for each of the eleven general divisions of personnel services.

Perry (417), surveying California schools, found two hundred counseling practices in thirty-six junior colleges. These practices are aimed to aid students in knowing themselves, relating themselves to the college world, and preparing for wise choices in the occupational, civic, and social world they are about to enter. Liberal arts colleges, being small, offer religious influences, unusual opportunity for close personal relationships between faculty and students, and excellent housing and placement, but often lack trained guidance workers. In larger institutions educational

counseling finds greater stress. McElhannon (410) and Williamson (434) found faculty counseling producing no appreciable effect upon freshman scholarship. In an experiment with equal groups of low-ranking freshmen, however, at the University of Kentucky (420), those who were advised of their handicaps did better than the unadvised.

### **Social and Personal Problems**

Under the direction of Hand (401), members of a seminar in the problems of campus leadership at Stanford University obtained from over 250 American colleges and universities data on campus activities most helpful to students. The summary was organized under twenty heads. A survey of 551 colleges and universities (395) showed two general classes of health problems, those arising from deficient care in earlier years and those associated with the college environment. In 56 institutions where tests for tuberculosis were given, one-third of the students were found to be infected. Gardner (399) reported three provisions generally made: a college physician, an infirmary, and required courses in hygiene.

### **Student Housing**

Walker (431) found a relation between academic success and the place of dwelling during attendance at college. Residence halls had the most successful students, those living at home ranked second, students at fraternity homes third, and students in rooming houses fourth. Students living in residence halls made grades higher than those predicted for university students. Home groups approximated predicted grades and chapter and rooming house groups made grades below predicted ones. Cheek (393) found housing important as an aid to social life and gracious living as well as to health and scholarship. Housing in the distinctly residential college may provide invaluable phases of social education and may also serve as a bridge between the intellectual and social life of the student if faculty members or trustees are frequent visitors (394, 411). Cabins for self-help students at Maine seemed to be showing their economic value (392). The housing phase of personnel service was found to hold fifth and seventh places, respectively, in the better and poorer schools (399).

### **Functions of Guidance**

An analysis of four recent statements (388, 399, 403, 406) concerning student personnel programs showed eight functions about which there is common agreement: selection, orientation, health, housing, personal counseling, extracurriculum activities, placement, and record keeping. Three add educational and vocational counseling and student financial aid, and one or more include specifically discipline, religion, and administration of the program. Gardner (399) and Humphreys (403) combined social activities and extracurriculum activities, while the American Council on

Education statement (388) and Lloyd-Jones and Smith (406) made a distinction between these two aspects of the program. The program recommended by the American Council on Education's Committee on Student Personnel Work (388) in its twenty-three points added: the interpreting of institutional objectives and opportunities to prospective students and their parents and to workers in secondary schools; the enlisting of family cooperation; aptitude testing; information to encourage flexibility of the curriculum program; understanding student mores; coordinating all services; and keeping the student continuously informed as to educational opportunities and services available to him.

The chaotic development and confusion of organization causes concern. Lloyd-Jones and Smith (406) pointed out the great overlapping of functions and confusion in titles and duties and concluded that definitions and organization in this field are anything but clear. Sturtevant (426, 427) emphasized the need of organization to coordinate the work of specialists.

The scope and aims of programs of counseling at the higher education level seem to become more inclusive (388, 397, 406, 412, 426). They reach back to the precollege life of college youth, they select him, they orient him, apply all manner of special technics in their study of him, they counsel him for his educational, vocational, social, and personal needs, they exercise supervision over his health, behavior, attitudes, educational plans and progress, extracurriculum life, religious growth, housing and food, and place him, if possible, in a position in the working world—all this with the aim of helping him to become a well-integrated personality, fitted to realize his highest potentialities and to bear his full share of responsibility on the campus and in the social and business world that lies beyond the campus. To insure the accomplishment of these ends programs of counseling and guidance are concerned with the keeping of records and with carrying on constant research. Programs of counseling attempt to coordinate all agencies having to do with students and to diffuse through the whole institution among officers, faculty, staff, and students the point of view of guidance.

Vocational guidance receives ever more attention, as shown at conferences (407, 419), in the steadily increasing numbers of references in indexes (414, 418) and in surveys (421, 432). On the other hand, there is greatly increased activity in problems involving health, personal development, and adjustment to college life.

### **Counseling Personnel**

Practices vary greatly in different institutions. Kirkpatrick (404) reported that the counseling program at Bethany College engages a dean of personnel and a faculty trained as counselors. At Northwestern University (390) a personnel committee of eleven has complete responsibility. Brumbaugh (391) advocated in his ideal organization a personnel director, and faculty members selected because of interest and aptitude and trained for

counseling. Brown University (389) reported a board of counselors composed of the dean of the college, director of admissions, assistant dean of undergraduates, registrar, faculty advisers of honor students, and the director of educational measurements. Muskingum College (415) uses faculty members and a personnel officer. Hill (402) at Wesleyan reported a committee composed of the president, dean of men, dean of freshmen, librarian, secretary, a student representative from each of the three upper classes, and two professors. Most of the junior colleges reporting recently (403, 405, 416, 423, 424, 429, 430) mentioned deans or personnel director and wide use of faculty members as counselors. Catholic colleges for women (408, 409) reported important use of faculty and upper-class student counselors. Lloyd-Jones and Smith (406) found in a survey of college catalogs that 6,850 officers with 216 different titles were apparently involved in the programs of 521 colleges.

### Technics

The student is being given more freedom (396), even being urged in some schools to take more responsibility, for planning his curriculum; he is being encouraged to talk back (436) and to evaluate the interview and the interviewer, with helpful results (425). Self-discovery and self-direction are stressed (428, 435), coddling of students is discouraged, and counselors are reminded (422) that the guidance program must realize that the modern student does not want his problems solved for him; that it is no more help than for him to look up the answers in the back of the book. Faculty members are being ever more generally used, sometimes because of necessity due to the tremendous increase in student numbers and lack of finances for enlarging the regular personnel staff, but also because of the general trend toward making the whole campus guidance-minded, to include in the program all officers, staff faculty members, students, and agencies that serve educational needs.

A reaction is evident away from factor analysis of the student toward a more organismic approach. It is the "well-integrated personality," the "whole man," the "holoistic attitude" which is becoming the goal toward which the efforts of counseling and guidance should be directed. Caution is earnestly advised in personal counseling that the whole man be considered, that confidences be not forced, and that prying into personal affairs, even through questionnaires (427), be looked upon as a dangerous practice.

### Junior Colleges

Activity among junior colleges is evident from the large number of reports (403, 405, 413, 416, 423, 424, 429, 430). These show a keen interest in personnel work, fine cooperation by staff and faculty, well-developed programs, and a sound philosophy of guidance with special stress upon developing well-integrated personalities.

## C. Out-of-School and Adult Programs

D. L. HARLEY

### Surveys

Research studies dealing with out-of-school and adult programs of guidance have been few and, as is the case with other guidance studies, are confined almost entirely to surveys of practices in different localities. Three such surveys have been made: (a) The United States Office of Education made a survey of guidance activities in behalf of out-of-school youth (455). This study described fairly complete programs in seven localities and lesser activities in over sixty communities. (b) The American Association for Adult Education devoted a section in the 1936 yearbook to brief descriptions of twenty-three programs (453). (c) The American Association of School Administrators described three programs in the Appendix to the sixteenth yearbook, 1938 (441).

Summaries of the findings of thirteen coordinated surveys, made in 1935, together with findings of a number of uncoordinated surveys by local agencies, have been published by the Office of Education (454). An annotated reference book to many other youth surveys made in recent years has been issued for the American Youth Commission (449).

There have been a number of descriptions of guidance practices for out-of-school youth and for adults in particular localities. Brief descriptions of some of the significant elements in the practices described, both in the surveys and in the studies of particular communities, are presented here.

### Community Programs

The Adjustment Service of New York City, a project of the American Association for Adult Education, with the assistance of the Carnegie Corporation, supplied adults with the most complete guidance and counseling service ever to be attempted on a large scale. During the sixteen months of its existence, in 1933 and 1934, it counseled over 12,000 individuals. The organization and operation of this unique project has been described in detail in a series of twelve reports written by persons who took active part in the work (440, 457, 467). The Rhode Island Institute for Counseling and Personnel Service represents an important extension of the public school guidance program to persons usually beyond the scope of that service. The organization, which was established with the assistance of the National Occupational Conference, provides a dependable testing and counseling service at cost to its institutional members, of which there are thirty. The staff is drawn from the public school personnel ordinarily carrying on such work (447, 448). The Pasadena, California, Employment and Vocational Bureau provides a service similar to the Rhode Island Institute but does not interlock with the public schools. It represents an amalgamation of various community agencies which formerly engaged

separately in work of this type (453). The Personnel Counseling Service of Los Angeles provides testing and other guidance services to clients referred from a variety of agencies (455). In Denver, there is also a Personal Adjustment Service, free to all members of the community (453).

### School Guidance Services for Out-of-School Youth

The Philadelphia Junior Employment Service (462), a division of the public school system, is affiliated with the Pennsylvania State Employment Service. This junior employment service provides guidance, employment certification, and placement for out-of-school youth. Monthly reports are issued showing trends in placement and work openings. Annual followup studies of high-school graduates furnish basic data for guidance in the schools. Providence, Rhode Island, conducts an Auxiliary Service of guidance and counseling for out-of-school youth from the ages of sixteen to twenty-one. The counselors are retired school teachers who are furnished with the usual guidance aids by the school system and with office space by the local libraries (441, 453). In Syracuse, New York, the board of education established a Guidance Service Bureau for young persons between the ages of seventeen and twenty-five (453). In New York City, the board of education has endeavored to supply the services formerly offered by the Adjustment Service of that city by installing facilities for testing and guidance in certain of its continuation schools. These are available to all persons over seventeen years of age (438, 453). Guidance service in connection with continuation or retraining schools seems to be a fairly common form of activity, though it is not possible to say in how many instances these services are available to persons who do not contemplate enrolling in the school. Atlanta, Georgia (453), Rochester, New York (445), and Williamsport, Pennsylvania (442, 460), make this type of service generally available.

### Other Institutions

The guidance and counseling programs of colleges and universities are usually restricted to their own students. However, two activities of the University of Minnesota have been thrown open to interested persons. The Testing Bureau is equipped to assist individuals in setting up occupational goals and mapping out proper training courses, and it is authorized to extend its services to adults on payment of a small fee (441, 455). The Employment Stabilization Research Institute operated a reorganized state employment service during 1931-32, and its occupational Testing Division accumulated considerable experience in drawing up occupational ability patterns or profiles. This activity has been described by Paterson, Darley, and Elliott (461).

The Y.M.C.A.'s and the Y.W.C.A.'s do a great deal of counseling in their various branches, directed both toward vocational and personal prob-

lems. While for the most part these activities do not attain the status of well-defined programs, yet in some of the larger and more active branches they have been vigorously promoted. The West Side Y.M.C.A. in New York City (453, 458) and the Y.M.C.A.'s in Boston (453, 469), Baltimore (469), and Minneapolis (455) have each operated programs involving testing and individual guidance. Among the local branches of the Y.W.C.A., those in Boston (454) and Lincoln, Nebraska (453, 455), have guidance and counseling activities of more than ordinary interest. In Westchester County, New York, camps for underprivileged children are operated as part of a countywide recreation program with guidance activities (467). The national organizations of certain of the service clubs encourage their local branches to promote vocational guidance. In particular, the Altrusa Clubs (440) and the Kiwanis Clubs (444, 465) have formulated programs whose adoption they recommend.

### Government Agencies

Various agencies of the federal government engage to a greater or lesser degree in the provision of guidance and counseling services. The United States Employment Service, through the many local offices of its affiliated state organizations, does a vast quantity of individual interviewing. While much of this is perfunctory and nearly all of it is directed toward the immediate end of placement, yet it is inevitable that a certain amount of guidance will be imparted. The relation of the Service to guidance has been discussed by Stead (466). The employment office of Rochester, New York, gives emphasis to guidance work (453). In 1936 the employment service in New York City took over the Junior Consultation Service which had been operated by Vocational Service for Juniors, a private organization (455, 468). The National Youth Administration provides facilities for the individual counseling of youth by placing special interviewers in the employment offices of some eighty cities. While these are for the most part occupied with routine problems of placement, in a few cities a special guidance service is being attempted (450, 451, 456). The Civilian Conservation Corps recognizes a responsibility for the guidance and counseling of the youth under its care. This is chiefly carried out by the educational advisers in the various camps who are available to the boys for individual interviews on vocational as well as educational topics. However, other activities of the camps, such as the evening vocational classes and the daily work experience on the job provide elements of a guidance program (452, 459). The Works Progress Administration, through its emergency education program, has occasionally been brought into the field of guidance. In Norwalk, Connecticut, the local director established adult guidance clinics, where tests were administered and individual counseling given (455).

**Miscellaneous Programs**

A few guidance programs by large employers have been reported. The Westinghouse Company of Pittsburgh provides guidance for its younger employees, supplying information regarding educational opportunities and maintaining records of individual activities as a means of recognizing aptitudes and abilities (453). The Pennsylvania State Emergency Relief Administration, which has 4,000 workers, has developed a statewide "job-performance evaluation" through its personnel unit. Diagnostic tests are given and employees are told of their deficiencies and are helped to remedy them (437). Several programs for women only, other than those of the Y.W.C.A.'s, are reported. In Los Angeles the Bureau of Vocational Service specialized in assisting business and professional women to adjust themselves (453). In Boston, the Women's Educational and Industrial Union offers free vocational information and counseling (453). The Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, supported by the American Association of University Women, furnishes occupational information and advice to women college graduates (453). Special facilities for handicapped persons are provided by the Placement Service for Handicapped People, of Minneapolis, which offers guidance as well as placement (453), and by the Vocational Rehabilitation Service for the District of Columbia, maintained by the United States Office of Education (453). In rural areas, programs of guidance and counseling for out-of-school youth and adults seem to be practically nonexistent. In the few places where countywide programs have been developed, they operate almost exclusively for school children. In Breathitt County, Kentucky, however, a certain interest in out-of-school youth appears to exist, and there are descriptions of steps taken to bring these young people together for guidance purposes (443, 446).

## CHAPTER IV

### Technics of Guidance and Counseling<sup>1</sup>

C. GILBERT WRENN, with the cooperation of MARGARET E. BENNETT, DANIEL D. FEDER, EDWARD S. JONES, PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS, and EDMUND G. WILLIAMSON

**T**HE PROCEDURES in discharging guidance and personnel functions are grouped for discussion into nine sections. They include the usual technics as well as newer procedures. For six of these nine technics it was necessary to review basic studies prior to 1935 in order to provide a background for the recent investigations. An attempt has been made to select for a more extended and critical discussion only the more significant recent studies rather than to cover all the literature. Several of the sections include a critical review of the research methods used and suggestions for further research.

Research is prolific in these areas, but many studies are seriously deficient in research methodology. Interest in these technics is great, but workers often rush into hastily conceived studies. Many of the reported investigations evidence no awareness of earlier studies. Too many of the projects reported are cross section studies and too few use the longer but more significant developmental (longitudinal) approach. Too many are simple surveys of small populations from which no significant or comprehensive conclusions can, or should, be drawn; too few of even the careful studies have been followed up or verified from another population or at another time.

The literature on guidance and personnel work still contains too many verbalizations and too few verified concepts. What is needed are more carefully planned, carefully sampled, developmental studies that appraise the individual or the technic, not piecemeal, but in his or its normal, dynamic setting. We shall at times need to sacrifice "controls" for "connections" but this may be justifiable if we fully recognize the uncontrolled factors that qualify our conclusions.

#### A. Tests

C. GILBERT WRENN

As a procedure or tool in performing guidance functions the use of tests ranks high in importance. P. M. Symonds, chairman of the committee preparing the June 1938 *Review* on "Psychological Tests and Their Uses," pointed out in the introduction to Chapter I that "the influence of counseling procedures in high school and college (upon intelligence testing) will

<sup>1</sup>Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 240.

undoubtedly be a topic for future study and discussion," and "the use of intelligence test results in the guidance of high-school and college students toward their future educational and vocational careers still is uncertain and much more work will have to be done before established procedures are arrived at." Of vital interest to both guidance and research workers are the three chapters entitled "Vocational Aptitude Tests," "Personality and Character Measurements," and "Applications of Tests of Non-Intellectual Functions." In a summary statement of the studies reviewed in the last-named chapter the significant comment was made that "the outstanding criticism of the studies under review, from the point of view of the 'consumer' of research, is that, although the results are frequently significant for groups, the extent to which the conclusions apply to each individual of the group is not clearly indicated. Where the chief reason for making an investigation is to secure data that will aid in understanding and giving help to an individual, statistical measures should be applied which will show the extent to which the aim has been attained." Research workers and counselors will be interested also in the December 1938 *Review of Educational Research* on "Educational Tests and Their Uses."

### Studies in 1938

Wellman (480) attempted to formulate a systematic concept of "functional intelligence," involving factors of distance (amount of change in IQ), rate of change, and time. She presented cases of marked change in IQ, both upward and downward, with the interpretation that the first type of change was the result of attendance in a nursery school and an unusually stimulating elementary school while the change downward was the result of residence in an unfavorable orphanage environment. Contrasting with the trend of evidence in the Iowa and other studies is a report by Lawson (478), who studied possible changes in IQ over a six-year period that might have occurred as a result of entrance into the curriculum of the Jersey City State Teachers College Demonstration School. No significant changes in IQ were noted by any of several methods of comparison. The study is weakened by lack of evidence of the nature of this curriculum and of the culture to which the children had been exposed before entering the Demonstration School. Furthermore, this group of 141 children was somewhat selective, with an average IQ of 109. The report is notable, however, in its challenge to the current trend of assigning considerable weight to the influence of the school environment upon IQ stability.<sup>2</sup>

In the field of personality appraisal, Dwyer (473) gave the Strong test to all applicants to the University of Michigan Medical School over a three-year period and studied the results obtained with the 418 who matriculated. He determined the various intercorrelations among 19 scales, and subjected his figures to the first steps of a multiple-factor analysis. Finding

<sup>2</sup> See other studies reported by Strang page 148-50.

four group factors, he then isolated four fundamental occupations—physicist, journalist, minister, and life insurance salesman. Using these as pivots, Dwyer predicted the scores of the other fifteen scales with only small errors, except in the case of farmer and C.P.A. The use of multiplier constants upon the scores of the four pivot scales is suggested as a legitimate scoring scheme. Bills (471) gave the Strong test to 588 insurance salesmen and found a high relationship between scores on the insurance scale of the test and ratings by their sales managers. One scoring low on the test had about three and one-half times the chance of being rated a failure by his manager as did a man scoring high. Carter and Jones (472) used the Strong blank with 208 tenth-grade students and found that contrary to earlier judgment, it would serve as a useful clinical instrument at this age level when used in connection with other information.

Of interest to both research workers and counselors are the studies reported by Bennett (470) and Kopas (477). The first worked out a method that permits one to determine from the F1-C and F2-C scores the estimated scores for the other Bernreuter scales, while the second writer described a simplified scoring plan for the Strong test that purports to eliminate the necessity for scoring the occupations that will rate "C." Considerable doubt was thrown upon the effectiveness of widely used personality and adjustment inventories in studies by Feder and Mallett (475) and Jarvie and Johns (476). Some instruments that do not discriminate well in a research study, however, may still be used in a clinical situation where the information secured is interpreted in relation to other data. Spencer (479) reported a carefully administered study that shows rather clearly the influence of anonymity upon the truthfulness of the reactions given to personality questions. The group saying they would have answered some of the questions untruthfully had they been required to sign their names to the blank had the highest Mental Conflict score. Those saying that signing would not have affected the truthfulness of the answers given had the lowest Mental Conflict scores. The signing of names doubtless would have reduced materially the efficiency of the blank in selecting those who needed counseling help. Contrasted with these studies is one by Farnsworth (474) in which a relatively high stability of response on the Bernreuter test was found upon retests of one, two, and three years in length. In addition to the evidence of shifts of no significance in percentile ranking and of high retest reliability, 71 percent of the items were answered in an identical manner after one year, 65 percent after two years, and 65 percent after three years. This is much higher stability than has been reported on many of the so-called attitude and personality scales.

The evidence from these studies must be considered in the light of the results of other studies summarized in the two issues of the *Review of Educational Research* referred to, and in the corresponding issues of the two preceding cycles. It is unsafe to draw conclusions for one's work from a single study in any area.

## B. Rating Scales

C. GILBERT WRENN

If one passes over the basic work of Galton in 1883 and of Pearson in 1906, our modern interest in rating scales goes back to the work of Scott and others with the man-to-man rating scale in the Army Personnel Division. Rugg (505) in 1921 and 1922 pointed out many weaknesses of this scale, and interest in rating scales lagged for a time but took a new spurt in the late 1920's. This interest has become intensified of recent years through the activities of Symonds (515), the American Council on Education (483), Guilford (493), and Strang (514).

### Basic Studies Prior to 1935

The very considerable number of research studies during the period 1920-34 may be arranged in the following rough categories: (a) form of the scale, (b) reliability, (c) characteristics of the good rater, (d) training of the rater, (e) self-ratings, and (f) ratings of teachers by students.

For a review of the basic studies the reader is referred to the previously mentioned bibliographies and summaries. It still seems necessary, however, to cite a few representative references as a background for the consideration of recent investigations.

There are four general types of rating scales: the numerical scale; the standard scale, such as a handwriting or the man-to-man scale; the graphic scale; and the defined-group scale. The reader is referred in particular to two basic studies on the graphic rating scale, those by Freyd (492) and Bradshaw (485), since this is the most widely used type of scale in education. The American Council on Education Rating Scale which resulted from the study reported by Bradshaw is used in hundreds of schools and colleges. A good comparative reference is that by May and Hartshorne (499) wherein are discussed the relative values of four different devices for rating character and behavior. Many investigators have studied the reliability of the rating scale method and of different types of scales. A basic reference is again that by Bradshaw as well as those by Paterson (500) and Kornhauser (496). The characteristics of the good rater, the personal equation in rating, and the training of raters have also been the subject of much research. Some of the important conclusions were reported by Vernon (518), Adams (481), Conrad (488), and Landis (497).

Studies of self-ratings are not encouraging since reliability is low and many factors apparently influence the degree of underestimation and overestimation. Most studies confirm the general tendency of superior students to underestimate and inferior students to overestimate their scholastic ability. Two representative and critical studies are those by Yoakum and Manson (521) and Filter (491). Investigations involving ratings of teachers by students appear to be of interest to school executives. Their research value is less than their practical usefulness in a specific situation.

The Purdue Scale and the Rating Scale for Teachers developed by Starrak (513) are widely used. Evaluations of the use of scales for rating teachers are reported by Remmers (502) and Bryan (486).

### **New Scales Reported Since 1934**

Three new scales should be noted: the Winnetka scale for nursery and elementary-school children reported by Van Alstyne (517), the Wisconsin scale for older students reported by Stagner (512), and the Business Education Council scale reported by Rulon and others (506). Of these three, each designed for a different group, the Winnetka scale has most to commend it from a research point of view. Set up to supplement the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman and Maller scales, the items of this new scale deal with conduct situations rather than abstract terms. A sampling of 1,200 children was used for the selection of items after several earlier trial studies, with factor analysis being used to determine the independent situations and groupings or traits. The result is a carefully constructed scale of thirteen situation-items with a reliability of .87 on the basis of reratings by eight judges. A study of personality in young children by Roberts and Ball (504) disclosed interesting differences between ratings by parents and those by teachers of the same children on such scales as Ascendancy-Submission, Attractiveness of Personality, Response to Authority, and Tendency To Face Reality.

### **Recent Basic Research**

The trend toward studies of self-ratings and ratings of teachers by students appears to have diminished during the last four years. On the other hand, there has been a number of investigations of the ability of teachers to rate pupils. Hartson (494) published data on the preadmission rating scales used with 1,120 candidates for admission to Oberlin College which corroborate the conclusions of his earlier studies that these ratings add materially to the prediction of scholastic success. A combination of ratings, high-school scholarship, and psychological test results correlates .72 with college grades. Ratings by the principal are somewhat superior to those by a teacher or a friend. The prediction value of ratings was also verified in a study by Crandall (489) at Stanford University. Both of these investigations deal with the selected populations of private institutions, which materially restricts the prediction range. Langlie (498) in a carefully conducted study found reliability of teacher ratings low but validity fair in a study of pupils in four Minneapolis and St. Paul senior high schools. Agreement between raters and retest reliability were both poor but correlations were reasonably high between ratings on ability to learn and college aptitude test scores, and ratings on capacity for college work and subsequent achievement. He observed that reliability is a function of both the competence of the rater and the nature of the characteristic rated.

Several studies indicate that teachers often rate intelligence more accurately than other characteristics. Such correlations as reported may be considered significant for groups; the use of such ratings, however, would most often be with individuals.

Highly significant work is being done with ratings in the evaluation phases of the Progressive Education Association Eight Year Study. Smith (509) made one report in 1934 and another in 1935 on the work of his committee. Appraisal of many of the personality characteristics previously sought through the use of rating scales is being experimentally approached through the use of new types of achievement tests (501). The results of these experiments are being awaited with interest.

Several studies have been made of specific statistical problems involved in securing and recording ratings. These are reported by Bent (484), Pan-Lin-Chi (487), and Rexroad (503). Other studies of ratings, self-ratings, and attitude measures are reported by Alstetter (482), Darley (490), Healy (495), Sletto (507), Smeltzer (508), Soderquist (511), Turrell (516), and Williamson (520).

### Needed Research

Besides the correction of certain obvious research errors, the following studies are suggested: (a) ratings made under conditions that permit their significance to be seen in a dynamic pattern of behavior; (b) ratings secured from individuals who have been subjected to varying conditions of training; (c) comparisons of the validity of specific kinds of information secured from ratings with information secured through records, planned observation, or the interview; (d) the prediction value of ratings for other characteristics than the frequently used intelligence factor; and (e) how well a teacher can predict how a student will act in a given social study or emergency situation.

## C. The Interview <sup>3</sup>

C. GILBERT WRENN

It is difficult to conduct, under natural conditions, interviews which can be recorded for subsequent analysis, although the one-way vision screen and the concealed microphone promise to simplify this problem. The complexity of the interview, its infinite variety of stimuli and response situations, and its uniqueness make standardization or stereotyping almost impossible. Another obstacle in the way of scientific treatment is the lack of criteria for determining success in the interview.

<sup>3</sup> Acknowledgment is made to the work of the writer's assistant, Willis E. Dugan, in the preparation of this section.

### General Literature and Summaries

The interview as a technic in guidance was recently described by Strang (550). The 1938 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (560) contains a still more recent section devoted to the subject. The specialized technics used by professional workers in many fields have been described by Bingham and Moore (524). A chapter of Symonds (552) has proved fundamental in any consideration of the interview in diagnosis, as has Williamson and Darley's (557) more recent publication in the field of student personnel work. In more specialized fields, Young (561) described the therapeutic interview as applied to social case work, while Woodring and Metcalfe (558) presented an analysis of the interview and its use in the improvement of study. Three other articles (526, 533, 541) presented briefs on various uses of the interview.

### Studies Prior to 1935

The bulk of research prior to 1935 is concerned with the reliability of the interview. Rice (545) presented convincing evidence to show that a bias in the mind of the interviewer is communicated by some process of suggestion to the mind of the interviewee. The fact that different interviewers obtain widely divergent results with the same group of subjects or with two comparable groups is again supported by Viteles (555) who pointed out that even experienced sales managers differed widely in their opinion concerning twenty-four applicants interviewed. Hollingworth (534: 114-23), in reporting an investigation in which fifty-seven applicants for positions as salesmen were interviewed by twenty experienced interviewers, found that the ratings varied widely. The employment interview, in its traditional form, has been found to be highly unreliable.

In one of the few studies of the reliability of the interview in student personnel work, Clark (529) discovered that even under excellent interviewing conditions, interviewers who were endeavoring to conduct uniform interviews did not agree. Muscio's study (542) indicated that the form of question used in the interview influenced both reliability and validity. Early studies of the use of the interview in predicting an individual's mental ability are not encouraging. Hollingworth (534) indicated that the unstandardized interview has been shown to be practically valueless for this purpose. Snedden (548) demonstrated, however, that a carefully standardized interview was a good disguised intelligence test. The chief source of unreliability according to Woodworth (559) is the subject's intent to make a good impression. Other representative studies are those by McGeoch (539, 540) in an evaluation of the psychology of testimony, O'Rourke (544) on the use of a highly standardized employment interview, and Williamson (556) on the effectiveness of faculty counseling in scholastic motivation.

### Recent Research

Investigations of the interview in recent years have emphasized its use in educational diagnosis and adjustment. Burge (528) combined the analysis of test papers with the use of the interview. Oral work and questioning revealed errors of habits which would not have been evident from examination of the answers alone. Brownell and Watson (527) reported a more controlled study of the relative values of the test and the interview from which the conclusions were drawn that the personal interview and the test are equally satisfactory only for gross types of diagnosis. Lund (536) equated two groups of high-school students and endeavored to ascertain the value of the interview in influencing scholastic achievement. Ackerley (523) attempted to determine the comparative value of the interview and the written attitude scale in securing reliable data on parental practices and a parental appraisal of a child's growth. About 95 percent agreement was obtained between recorded interviews with the parents and a duplicate scale form which parents checked.

Studies have been made in which the interviewer's participation in the situation is kept constant. Harriman (532) described his adaptation of the Schwartz interview technic which involves showing the subject pictures. His report was made on only ten women and no conclusions should be drawn. A similar study, based on a "constant interviewer" factor, is that of Maizlish (537) in which he discussed the use of the disguised vocabulary test as an intelligence test. He pointed out that an earlier attempt by Snedden (548) to use the disguised vocabulary test in his "Heredity Questionnaire" was open to criticism. Maizlish developed a revision of the test which he called "Likes and Dislikes Questionnaire." When using it in a personal conference the interviewer asks a student whether he likes or dislikes a certain type of individual. The study is not yet standardized but may prove to be serviceable in fields of employment and social service, as well as in school situations. Analysis of the frequency, form, and time of student-teacher interviews was made by both Shaw (546) and Turrell (554).

### Descriptive Treatments of the Interview

Consideration of the importance of rapport and technics in the proper approach to the interview were stressed by Symonds' description (553) of twenty-seven recorded interviews with high-school boys and girls. Shellow (547) used the Strong Vocational Interview Blank in giving direction to the interview and in increasing the ease of approach. A number of considerations have appeared relative to the mechanics of the interview (560), its frequency (535), its duration (525), and the opportunities for "talk contacts" between high-school pupils and their teachers as studied by McClusky and Chapelle (538). In the field of mental hygiene methodology, Gillette (531) offered several suggestions for treating personality ills and social maladjustment based on the experiences of successful teachers, My-

rick (543) reported an interview in which the nonverbal elements were the decisive factors in the successful treatment of the case while Deihl and Wilson (530) reported a study using skilled questioning equilibrated with receptive silence in the effort to lead the individual toward self-understanding. The use of drawings, pictures, and other approaches to the interview has claimed attention from several writers. Appraisal of the interviewer is reported in two studies (522, 551).

### Needed Research

The interview as a technic offers many challenging opportunities for further research. It is useful as a technic for (a) securing information, (b) imparting information, and (c) effecting changes in attitude and behavior. There is great need for measuring the effectiveness of the interview with respect to this third function—the stimulation of changes in attitudes and overt action.

There is no absolute criterion of validity for the effectiveness of interviews; and studies using control groups can never prove that the control group was not subject to many of the stimuli effecting changes in the behavior of members of the experimental group. This means that validity in terms of gross behavior changes will probably never be established. It is possible that more attention should be given to the developmental approach rather than the cross section study, using individuals rather than groups, and following the individual over a period of time. We need a still further development of interview guides and record sheets to aid the interviewer in observing relationships and reactions. More attention should be devoted to the technic of choosing good counselors, perhaps through further appraisals of interviewers and evaluation by the interviewees. We still know too little of the relative values of diagnostic information gained from the interview as compared with that gained from records or from planned observation.

## D. Personnel Records <sup>4</sup>

DANIEL D. FEDER

Clarification of the issues in the use of records in guidance and description of various systems in operation are the major contributions of the educational and psychological literature during the last three years on the general subject of records in secondary school and college. The very considerable number of studies which are either descriptive or experimental in a given school situation makes it seem more expedient to discuss only those investigations that result in conclusions of importance for record making in general. Hence this section will analyze a few studies only while including in the bibliography more research and descriptive

<sup>4</sup> Acknowledgment is made to the assistance of Florence Feder in the preparation of the bibliography for this section.

publications. School records are also treated in Chapter II of this issue of the *Review*.

### Use of Records

Based on an extensive survey of 177 school systems, Segel (585) prepared a comprehensive analysis of the nature and use of cumulative records. He distinguished five uses in the elementary and junior high school and four in the high school and college. A recent survey of high schools in California (566) revealed the prevalence of wide divergences in secondary-school guidance practices. Of the schools studied 87 percent kept complete cumulative records; 86 percent recorded mental test results; 63 percent kept achievement test records; and from 53 to 61 percent kept records of personality traits and citizenship ratings. Only 46 percent kept in touch with and kept records of students going on to the next educational unit, 23 percent kept vocational experience records, and 19 percent gathered data regarding social development. On the basis of a critical analysis and evaluation of practices in representative colleges and universities, Gardner (572) concluded that the quality of records kept by an institution is a fairly reliable index of its general educational excellence. He pointed out that the most satisfactory method for obtaining personal information for records is a combination of a personal interview with each entering student, and a repeat interview or a well-formulated questionnaire for collecting information once a year thereafter.

### Content of Records

Eurich and Wrenn (570) gave the following as essential content of records to be kept: (a) previous school grades, student activities, teacher ratings, and comments; (b) present school grades; (c) any tests given; (d) background facts about pupils' date of birth and about birthplace, occupation, education of parents, etc.; (e) attendance and causes of absence; (f) extra-classroom activities; (g) interviews or any type of counseling given; (h) health, including growth data; (i) juvenile court, social agency, and employment record; and (j) teacher ratings.

There are several statewide movements toward the establishment of more adequate cumulative record systems. The most advanced of these is the Ohio College Association program reported by Ogan (580) and by Toops (588) wherein the latest step has been the introduction of a standardized personal information blank, a standard college application form, and a uniform transcript of high-school credits. The advantages claimed for this program are: (a) the better integration of high school and college; (b) the development of better guidance procedures; (c) the equalization of college-going opportunity; (d) the study of current problems of students before their entrance to college; (e) the replacement of some 150 forms for 50 colleges with three uniform forms, thus lightening the principal's load and making possible the standardization of guidance procedures.

### Evaluation of Information

In a study of the predictive and diagnostic value of specific personal information, Williamson (592) selected groups of students of both sexes at the extremes in scholarship, and then determined which of the personal history items of the College Aptitude Test best distinguished between good and poor scholarship. He next derived scores from these items and applied them in making predictions of scholastic achievement. The personal history scores yielded a correlation of  $+ .24$  with College Aptitude Test scores,  $+ .08$  with high-school scholarship, and  $+ .08$  with honor point ratio in the autumn quarter. No appreciable changes in the prediction coefficients were noted by use of partial and multiple correlation technics. Despite the low correlations obtained, Williamson's study is important for its contribution of a technic whose possibilities deserve much further exploration. However, general adjustment, participation in extracurriculum activities, and other similar criteria may be more appropriate than scholastic averages for the evaluation of personal data scores.

### Summary

There is a trend toward centralizing the system of records and making them more complete and understandable as a reaction against the over-mechanization of earlier forms. A few statewide programs are emphasizing the closer integration of high schools and colleges by means of the transmission of more adequate and usable records which will permit more effective study and treatment of each individual. One of the chief advantages of the cumulative record is the possibility of combining the separate items into an integrated picture of the whole individual. The meaning of various patterns of records of interests, abilities, and activities, and how they may be combined most effectively is a matter demanding further research.

As yet little attention has been given to the mechanics of record keeping. With the growing tendency to use more complete and extensive records, it becomes exceedingly important to determine the most efficient methods of recording data. There is need for research to determine the time required by various means of obtaining, recording, and summarizing information, and to determine the methods which will yield the greatest ease of interpretation.

## E. The Autobiography and Life History

PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS<sup>5</sup>

Little actual research has been done on the autobiography and other methods of self-analysis. Sociologists have used what they call the life history rather extensively as a research technic, but there have been no

<sup>5</sup> Credit should be given to Mrs. Ruth E. Horowitz for assistance in making the bibliographic survey in preparation of this section.

critical studies of the use of the autobiography as a research method. The distinctions between the case study, the case history, the life history, and the autobiography are not at all clear. The life history is obtained by giving the subject more latitude in expressing himself freely; it is less controlled than the case history (596). The life history enables a subject to take the lead and, unlike the ordinary interview, indicates causal sequence in mental life and development. One distinction between the life history and the autobiography is that the former does not attempt to maintain status whereas the autobiography does since it is written as a private record of one's inner thoughts and feelings. Two kinds of life history have been recognized, one that is principally a record of events and the other more in the nature of a confessional. The former is said to be the kind secured more frequently from an extroverted person, while the latter is obtained from an introverted and frustrated person (617).

### **Nature and Form of the Autobiography and Life History**

Strang (622) noted four values in the autobiography: it gives a connected picture of the individual; it is applicable to work with resistant individuals; it has the possibility of being used in group work; and it provides indications of an individual's spontaneous interest. The sociologist uses the life history to reveal the content of the mind rather than the mental mechanisms which are the specific interest of the psychologist and the psychiatrist (598). Winter (626) has used the autobiography in the history class to illustrate the continuity and discontinuity of recorded history.

Johnson (609) stated that the autobiography should not be less than 5,000 words while Znaniecki (627) put the minimum length of an autobiography for use in sociological research at 100,000 words. In order to make the directions clear a preliminary interview is necessary before a subject writes a life history. Kreuger (612) emphasized the point that good rapport between the investigator and the subject is necessary in order to get useful life histories. He stated further that a good life history depends on the prestige that the investigator has in the mind of the subject, knowledge of the subject of the object of research, and giving the subject a rationalized motive for writing.

The policy of using questions as a means of stimulating the life history document has been debated. Standardized questions do not admit of exploration of the unique aspects of a person's problems (596) but a short questionnaire has been used with good effect (596, 603, 611). The autobiography is not always trustworthy as a statement of facts, although it may contain excellent material for psychological analysis (622). In this connection Znaniecki (627) suggested that the veracity may be checked by the internal consistency of statements and also by comparison of statements from several sources.

### Use of Life History and Autobiography

Chassell (601) in his Experience Variables Record has proposed a number of headings which are to serve as stimuli to self-analysis. In the original form in which this schedule was prepared it was planned that the subject rate himself on the different items in the schedule. In a recently revised form (600), emphasis is away from quantitative rating to a less controlled inspection and evaluation of the self on the various items in the inventory. Dollard (602) compared the case history method of individual analysis in several of the more important schools of psychotherapy and sociological study. He discussed these cases in the light of the following criteria:

1. The subject must be viewed as a specimen in a cultural series.
2. The organic motors of action ascribed must be socially relevant.
3. The peculiar role of the family group in transmitting the culture must be recognized.
4. The specific method of elaboration of organic materials into social behavior must be shown.
5. The continuous related character of experience from childhood through adulthood must be stressed.
6. The social situation must be carefully and continuously specified as a factor.
7. The life-history material itself must be organized and conceptualized.

Following are some of the studies in which the autobiography or life history has been used. Johnson (609) secured autobiographies of thirty-six stutterers and believed that they gave him insight in understanding the stutterers' difficulties. The problems of the adult were studied by Bühler (597) through the use of autobiographies. Iovets-Tereshchenko (608) used a variety of spontaneous writings of adolescents, including diaries and letters, in order to explore the adolescent mind. Kambourapoulou (610) secured daily diary records of situations producing laughter in a study of the sense of humor. A study of anger by Gates (605) used diary records in a similar fashion. Moore (614) used autobiographical sketches in order to learn of the social impulses of high-school students. Murphy and Likert (615) used the autobiography in a study of the background of social attitudes. Autobiographies were secured from college students in response to a short, suggestive paragraph of directions. Interviews and Chassell's Experience Variables Record were also used to predict social attitudes.

Selling (619) discussed obtaining the autobiography before or after the psychiatric interview suggesting that the more satisfactory method is to ask for the autobiography before the interview and then supplement it later. He believes that an autobiography helps to build rapport between counselor and client and he has been able to use it as evidence in making his diagnoses.

### Preparation of Autobiographies

A number of studies have proposed outlines or suggestions to be used in the preparation of autobiographies or life histories. Those of a general character for use with high-school students are those by R. B. Smith (621) and Symonds and Jackson (623). Uhl and Powers (625) proposed a

personal inventory for self-adjustment which is somewhat didactic in character. Hatcher (606) outlined a questionnaire to be used for suggestions in preparing an autobiography for rural boys and girls. M. Smith (620) suggested an outline useful in obtaining the mother's story in a psychological study and Fryer (604) provided directions in the planning of the autobiography with the purpose of disclosing interests. In a recent book for youth McLean (613) made suggestions for self-analysis.

### Summary and Evaluation

An unpublished study by Thurow (624) is the only one which has attempted a method of evaluating the autobiography. Fifty autobiographies were read for factors common to the majority of families. These formed the basis of a checklist. Each autobiography was then read and a rating of "much," "medium," or "little" or "not indicated" was given to each item in the checklist for its presence or absence according to the statements in the autobiography. These ratings were related by using the coefficient of contingency. Three studies which include an analysis of specific life histories deserve mention: Burgess (599) discussed one life history for its implications in the role of the family as an agency for the transmission of culture heritage; Radin (618) has added to *Crashing Thunder's* autobiography of an American Indian a valuable discussion of the implications of documents of this kind; and House (607) analyzed the case study of a sixteen-year-old boy from the point of view of research methodology.

The autobiography finds its clearest use in rapport building and as a catharsis. Its use for research purposes has received much comment but except for Thurow's unpublished study nothing has been done in working out methods of analyzing the material in an autobiography. Until such methods have been developed the autobiography can yield nothing except isolated facts, or very general trends and impressions.

### F. Case Studies

EDWARD S. JONES

Acknowledging the priority of social workers in the case-study field, Shaffer (649: 445) observed that "the case history is a description of an individual's environment and background, and of the influences that have affected his development." Under the case history outline, he classified types of data as: identifying data, statement of the problem, family and social environment, physical conditions and history, educational history, economic history, legal history, habits, adjustments, and satisfactions.

The recent emphasis of clinical guidance workers and psychologists has been in the direction of standardized objective test measures (643). It has led to cumulative records (648) which are little more than comparative scores in tests, plus routine identifications concerning school grades, race, family occupation, etc. Williamson and Darley (655), however, after

calling attention to the improved objectivity of personnel procedures, advised more consideration of case methods among counselors. Symonds (653) affirmed that it should be emphasized from the outset that the case study is not a research method but merely a practical device to help individuals.

Allport (629), however, more recently observed that by analyzing and comparing many such studies, it is possible to pass to the construction of psychological laws and to new hypotheses. It is regarded as a necessary device for keeping the attention riveted upon a whole life with its sequences of interrelated incidents and motives. The controlled specific situation was described by Lewin (639) with an attack on the purely statistical emphasis which he finds in many American writers. Methodologically, the individual case report, with all its details and deviations from the norm, becomes the starting point for a science of deviates.

### **Schools of Thought**

The following concepts have strongly influenced case-study methods for a number of years, and are still frequently referred to in the literature: the genetic approach; psychoanalysis, sometimes interpreted quite mechanistically (634); the individual psychology, of Adler, described by Murphy and Jensen (642) as being radically opposed to the Freudian philosophy; will therapy, of Otto Rank, particularly as reflected in Robinson (646) in her discussion of the growth of the "professional self" of the student of case study; the gestalt influence, which easily leads to a type theory of personality (642); and also topological psychology (639). Plant (644) has captured the respect of many through his eclecticism and breadth in the fields of medicine, psychology, and social work. He discussed environmental pressures and family patterns, but perhaps his most unique contribution was that of studying the "casual breakdown," or the particular dramatic incident which becomes of social importance. He criticised those students of childhood, for example, who trace various elements of misbehavior back to the earliest impulses as points of origin, and may forget to notice the full import and setting of a socially significant misbehavior, for example, a punished theft.

### **Scope of Application**

Considerable attention has been given to case reports in books on personality, among the more recent of which are those by Allport (629) and Healy (636), each with a different emphasis. The former is concerned more with method; whereas the latter's treatment is packed with reference to specific cases and has the fault of nearly all psychiatric material—that of being subjective and uncontrolled. Typically, a striking incident or situation is revealed from the childhood of the subject and interpreted as the cause of some personality maladjustment.

Investigators such as Sayles (647), in the field of child psychology, have

used case studies for many years, but their primary interest has been in establishing norms and principles of growth, and not with the case-study method. Isaacs (638) advocates psychoanalysis in the classroom, presenting case records of children thus treated. Munkres (641) presented a reliable method of analyzing six-year-olds in actual work-school situations by observing units of conduct and developing case records therefrom. Louttit (640) distinguished between two general levels of disturbance in children to be diagnosed through case reports, the first traced directly to the environment, the second based on an intermediary condition such as a state of fear or a neurotic tendency.

Allen (628), following the earlier work of Brewer (631), discussed the technics of the case-conference method in secondary-school guidance. He advocated the presentation of complete cases in guidance groups for broad and realistic insights. It is natural that case reporting in educational fields appears to be desultory and unfinished, since records are rarely handed on from one school to the next, and since later followup analyses are infrequent. Occasional descriptions have been given of case-work technics on the college level. Bragdon's presentation (630) of individual analysis is still largely an ideal for which few institutions have the time. Williamson (654) discussed the use of case-work methods in the field of faculty counseling at the University of Minnesota, but primarily as a method of instructing counselors, concerning agencies and experts which they might contact. Similarly, Sperle (651) utilized the case-work methods as an instructional technic in New Jersey State Teachers College. A number of studies in the field of remedial reading have taken on the aspects of case work; an investigation by Young (658) involved intensive analysis of a few children.

### Method and Emphasis

Sheffield (650), recognizing the difficulties of securing cause and effect relationships that are predictable, strongly advocated "situational" case studies and "participant observing" in which the case workers attempt to enter realistically into the actual situation faced by the subject. Out of this will come insight, often utilizing, as in her case of Herbert, the technics of the doctor, the social worker, the visiting teacher, and the psychologist.

The necessity of differential treatment (656) is naturally a corollary of the short-contact (657) relationship which is inevitable in many forms of guidance as well as social case work. The major difference between short contacts and extended relationships is that in the former the interviewer cannot expect to build up new standards and values, but must accept them as found. In short contacts, often necessary in large school systems, as well as in transient social work, generalized advice is more likely to be effective than high specific treatment. The former covers the assistance of the subject to explore new forms of living or schemes of action; mobilizing the subject's strength and thought for a crisis or decision; and redefining aims, loyalties, and values.

Reckless and Selling (645) reported on the primary differences between a sociological and a psychiatric interview, the former having more to do with the life history and the total environmental factors, the latter with the responses of the subject to critical situations—a cross section analysis of the individual's mentality. Several authors, notably Holmer (637), advocated the play situation as most favorable for proper diagnosis. He recorded the case of a child formerly diagnosed as feeble-minded, whose negativism was partially removed by a more natural setting. This reminds one of Burnham's (633) much earlier warning on pseudo-feeble-mindedness.

### **Recording**

Hamilton (635) discussed at length the various forms of case-work records, starting with the oldest and still most widely used when contacts are fragmentary, the diary. Then there were the various forms of summaries, diagnostic, periodic, evaluation, the closing entry, and, in addition, the inclusion of letters and reports. Bristol (632) argued for objectivity, brevity when possible, and wide variability in form to fit the particular case or research.

What is a good case study? It is true; it is relevant; it is unbiased and as objective as possible; it takes account of pertinent crises and events in the life of the individual; it contains a plan of treatment or growth. Guidance experts have added little to the social workers in developing methods of diagnosis. There is a great need of cooperative studies, in which many cases of the same sort can be considered (652). If the science of case work is still in its infancy, as Bristol states for social workers, guidance workers should be even more humble.

### **Needed Research**

There is abundant opportunity for research, concerning the methods of case study, which will combine the flexibility of a simple narrative with the reliability of objective data. Specifically, some research projects are the following: the relation of psychiatric case study to educational records, so as to determine when and why school difficulties arise in those who seem maladjusted later; the improvement of case methods in ordinary guidance work, or in placement interviews; how to handle case records in the treatment of personality defects, for example, stuttering or facial tics; how to collect records of noncurriculum events, as a matter of routine, or in specific cases; the place of informal questionnaires, as well as standardized questionnaires, in a complete case study.

## **G. Mental Hygiene Counseling**

C. GILBERT WRENN

The term "mental hygiene counseling" is relatively new in the field of guidance. It may be thought of as representing either a definite technic

or procedure, with a primarily therapeutic emphasis, or as describing a function of general counseling. The functions of the general counselor or teacher with respect to mental hygiene should probably be restricted to two; the intelligent understanding of behavior symptoms with a consequent referral to trained persons of students whose problem or behavior is potentially serious, and, second, the provision of an educational environment that promotes good mental health rather than acts as a cause of maladjustment.

### Summaries of Literature

Reference is made here to two issues of the *Review*, the February 1939 issue on "Mental and Physical Development" and the December 1936 issue on "Mental Hygiene and Adjustment." The former brings up to a very recent date the fundamental growth factors that are basic to an understanding of mental health while the latter summarizes mental hygiene theory and practice up to 1936. Chapter II of the December 1936 issue is on "School Influences" with several sections that are pertinent to guidance such as those on mental hygiene and academic progress.

Chapter VII of the same issue is on "Technics and Instruments of Mental Hygiene." The major portion of the chapter is given over to various technics of diagnosis and treatment in mental hygiene and it points out that few of the persistently positive results, found in the followup and evaluation studies that are reviewed, allow for the possibility of improvement through maturation irrespective of treatment. It was believed that more studies are needed that attempt to validate mental hygiene technics with the use of control groups.

### Recent Literature

As a result of a year's travel to schools throughout the country, made possible by a grant from the Commonwealth Fund, Ryan (666) discussed what he found with respect to mental hygiene practices. One might wish for a more critical analysis of the conditions that are described, but the book is valuable in describing mental hygiene practices in the schools. A second book (664), by a clinical psychologist in the Los Angeles Institute of Family Relations, is simply written and effectively illustrated. It should become a widely used book in high-school orientation courses. The treatment is organized about the three "drives" for recognition, response (love), and security. A third general study by Patry (665) outlined the principles to be followed in developing a state program, discussed the personnel involved, and described suggested organization plans.

Representative studies of a basic nature include that by Wallenstein (668), who reported 17 percent of broken-home children among a representative New York City school population, the worst personality effects being among boys, Negroes, and Slavic children. Over one-half of the

Negro children came from homes broken by death or separation. The children coming from broken homes, particularly where death was the cause, were found to be lower in IQ and socio-economic status and more retarded in school than were those from normal homes; these differences were statistically significant. Block (660) and Stogdill (667) both studied parent-child conflicts but the latter went further and attempted to discover what psychologists, parents, and children each thought about child control and extrovertive behavior. Psychologists leaned toward the freedom end of the scale, parents toward the control end, with the children endorsing only a moderate degree of freedom. Psychologists and children agreed in approving extrovertive behavior to a greater degree than did the parents.

Other studies bear more directly upon mental hygiene counseling. Baker (659) found that a "mine-run" group of high-school teachers knew most about their pupils' level of intelligence and physical health and least about their interests and hobbies, special abilities, and home background. The group of teachers as a whole knew less than one-fourth of the facts about their pupils that seemed essential to good counseling. This study used the questionable questionnaire method to collect information on special abilities, interests, and learning difficulties but records and tests were used to collect the other information. Darley (661) found that personality scales and tests gave clues to readjustments but that clinical judgment was needed to interpret test results and to disclose many areas of behavior difficulties not covered by existing tests. McKinney (663) used interviews, rating blanks, a Thurstone Schedule, and a free-association test to verify certain mental hygiene concepts as to the positive relationship of "good adjustment" to faster association time, greater social attainment, better health, more mature parents, fewer broken homes, and better scholarship. Whether these factors are causes or results of good adjustment is not disclosed although it was seemingly assumed that recreation, association with people, and striving for academic and social goals caused good adjustment. This has yet to be proved since many of these same concepts are used in defining who is well adjusted. Other reports are those by Johnson (662) describing the provision made for adjustment problems in the Chicago schools and that by Weiss (669) describing various diagnostic technics used in psychological counseling.

## H. The Clinical Method of Guidance

EDMUND G. WILLIAMSON

### General Procedures and Technics

Not all guidance workers are clinicians, and not all use clinical technics in assisting students. Psychometrists, registration advisers, teachers, dormitory directors, and faculty advisers are all personnel workers but not necessarily clinical counselors.

Clinical counseling consists of six steps (692):

1. Analysis—collecting data from many sources about attitudes, interests, family background, knowledge, educational progress, aptitudes, etc., by means of both subjective and objective technics.

2. Synthesis—collating and summarizing the data by means of case-study technics and test profiles to “high light” the student’s uniqueness or individuality.

3. Diagnosis—describing the outstanding characteristics and problems of the student, comparing the individual’s profile with educational and occupational ability profiles, and ferreting out the causes of the problems.<sup>6</sup>

4. Prognosis—judging the probable consequences of problems, the probabilities for adjustments, and thereby indicating the alternative actions and adjustments for the student’s consideration.

5. Counseling, or treatment—cooperatively advising with the student concerning what to do to effect a desired adjustment now or in the future.

6. Followup—repeating the above steps as new problems arise and further assisting the student to carry out a desirable program of action.

Some of these steps have been carried out by personnel workers from the early beginnings of the guidance movement. For example, counselors have always collected data in interviews, and psychometrists have tested aptitudes and interests. Moreover, counselors have always interpreted such data as they collected. These then are not new methods of guidance.

### Comparison with Traditional Counseling

What are the differentiating characteristics between traditional counseling and clinical counseling of individual students (682)? In general terms these differences are found in: (a) the more exhaustive data including those collected in the interview, by means of tests, by anecdotal reports from teachers, and by case-work methods; (b) the more critical review of these data regardless of their source—test scores are not accepted any less critically than are opinions and observations of students, teachers, and parents; (c) the attempts to encompass all data as opposed to overemphasis upon an unfavorable behavior incident or a high test score—negative halos are balanced against positive halos; and (d) the diagnosing or “teasing out” from relevant and irrelevant data of an interpretation which will be more valid, meaningful, and complete.

These characteristics of clinical counseling should be stressed to offset the prevalent practice of merely collecting data through interviews and tests with the naive expectation that such data will interpret themselves (672). So much attention has been devoted to the analytical procedure of collecting data that stress must be placed upon the other steps. It is in respect to the interpretation of data that clinical counseling differs most from ordinary counseling. This interpreting is a subjective process. Bingham (672)

<sup>6</sup> The organization of guidance for clinical counseling may take many forms. It may parallel that of child guidance clinics in which different types of guidance specialists are on the same staff and feed into a central folder the results of their analysis and diagnosis. Elsewhere these workers, with teachers, may meet in staff clinics, similar to the social workers’ case conferences, at which time they pool their findings and diagnose as a group. But in most guidance programs each counselor is expected to collect data from many sources concerning a particular student, to synthesize these data, and to arrive at a composite diagnosis.

contended that "when interpreting test results, ingenuity and fertility of insight as well as an understanding of psychological statistics, are indeed to be desired, and richly informed common sense must hold the reins."

It should be apparent that any criticism of "unscientific" directed at the clinical method because the interpretation of data is a subjective process must be restated. To identify scientific methods only with measurement data is to display ignorance of procedures used in science. Even a physicist must interpret his meter readings. Diagnosing in guidance must to some extent be subjective. Objective or scientific technics are utilized in collecting data to the end that the facts to be used in interpretation are as dependable (i. e., valid, reliable, verifiable, and meaningful) as possible. Case data should be valid and should provide comparisons between individuals. Interpretations should be free from the errors of bias, prejudice, impressions, and hunches; the attainment of these qualities is dependent upon the professional skill and integrity of the clinician. Interpretation is characterized by an attempt to weigh one set of data against another; to project test data on the family background, personality traits, educational and vocational experience and objectives, and other relevant information. Single facts are not interpreted; the composite or synthesis of case data provides the basis of interpretation (673, 675, 685).

### Evaluation

Specific technics have not yet been validated experimentally. A few studies have been made of the effectiveness of the totality of clinical procedures. Viteles (688) described the general characteristics of the criterion to be used in such validating investigations, and contrasted it with the inadequacy of traditional experimental and statistical methods used in evaluation studies in other fields. Stott (685) described the general methodology of evaluation studies of the (British) National Institute of Industrial Psychology using as criteria of the effectiveness of clinical guidance: (a) number of jobs held after guidance; (b) length of work on these jobs; (c) reasons for discontinuance of work; (d) reports from employers on efficiency of the student; and (e) reports from the student as to his satisfaction with his work experience. Data concerning these five factors were analyzed in terms of the extent to which the student had followed the vocational advice given by the counselor at the end of the student's school experience (approximately equivalent to the close of our junior high school). Students approximately fourteen years of age were given clinical guidance before leaving school and advised what type of job to seek. From two to four years later followup interviews were conducted to get information on the five criteria previously described. The counselor's advice was based upon rather extensive clinical analysis of vocational aptitudes.

Several investigations (674, 676, 677, 678, 680, 684) have been reported by English psychologists which utilize the criteria outlined by Stott. The methodologies of these studies were similar. Viteles (690) reported a simi-

lar study in the United States with results comparable to those of Stott wherein the group following the counselors advice was more successful and more satisfied than the group which had not. Trabue and Dvorak (686) used a similar methodology in evaluating vocational and educational guidance of adults. Williamson and Darley (692) reported the results of evaluation of clinical guidance in terms of grades and satisfaction with occupational and educational choice of one hundred and ninety-six college students. The adjustment and grades of students following advice was significantly higher than for those not following advice. Williamson (693) reported an evaluation of the clinical guidance of college freshmen in terms of the grades they received by individually-paired control cases. The critical ratios of the average differences in grades between the experimental and the control cases was 3.37 for the first quarter of residence and 3.44 for the first year.

### Summary

The important feature of the clinical method in guidance centers around formulating a diagnosis about a whole person. The diagnosis is a composite one—data in the form of test results, school grades, records from other personnel agencies, teachers' anecdotes, personal impressions of friends and associates, and qualitative judgments and observations made during the interview. But clinical counseling is more than the collecting of records—a task which any technician can perform. The clinical method transcends the data-gathering function and gives meaning to otherwise meaningless records. The interpretation of the data, the sifting of the relevant from the irrelevant, the integration of apparently unrelated facts, inferring the genotype from the phenotype—these are the distinguishing characteristics of the clinical method in guidance. The evaluation studies of this method are few in number and limited to the criteria of teachers' grades, job success, and job satisfaction. Additional studies should be made which use criteria involving personality measures. The evidence is however more impressive for clinical methods than for traditional methods of guidance (679).

## I. Group Guidance

MARGARET E. BENNETT

The term "group guidance" as used in this discussion refers to all types of activities carried on with groups of individuals for specific guidance purposes. At the college or university level it includes freshman week activities; orientation; how-to-study, mental hygiene, or occupational information courses; and numerous types of conferences and lectures. At the secondary level, and below, it is usually found in homeroom activities, in group guidance and occupations courses, in units within the social living or other basic course, and in assembly and conference programs. Any one

institution may combine several of these group activities in its guidance program. The term "group counseling" which appears frequently in guidance literature has sometimes been interpreted as referring to a form of group guidance which is used as a substitute for the interview. A survey of group guidance activities in junior colleges by Bennett (697) showed that all institutions reporting orientation courses had some form of individual guidance. This suggests that group activities are being used to supplement, rather than as a substitute for, counseling. Several studies reported here bear on the question of which guidance services can be carried on most effectively through group activities and which through the interview.

### **The Incidence of Group Guidance**

Recent comprehensive data on this point are not available, but several surveys indicate trends. Gardner (702) estimated that from 80 to 85 percent of the institutions of higher education in this country have some type of initial adjustment program. This estimate was confirmed by Walters (719) through a questionnaire survey of 153 colleges and universities showing 84 percent with freshman week programs, 44 percent with group guidance courses for freshmen, and 5 percent with group guidance courses for upper classes. In seventy large city school systems, Rosecrance (712) found periods provided for group guidance in about two-thirds of the junior high schools and in 57 percent of the senior high schools. Various combinations of homeroom periods, group guidance classes, and guidance units in regular subjects are reported. In a survey of occupational information courses in 1,111 schools, Proffitt (710) found no significant variation with the size of the city in the number of schools offering these courses.

### **The Nature of Group-Guidance Programs**

At the college level, Walters (719) found in the freshman week program the following types of activity listed in order of frequency: mental and achievement testing, lectures, introduction of faculty members, tours of campus, social activities, and religious activities. Pre-admission group conferences for high-school students were held by 43 percent of the colleges surveyed. Orientation courses usually deal either with individual problems of adjustment or with surveys within major fields of study. Numerous studies of the nature of student problems such as those by the American Youth Commission (695) and Wrenn (722) and summarized by Strang (716), suggested the significant areas for inclusion in group guidance courses at either the high-school or college level. Ratings by eleventh-year students at the Pasadena Junior College of the value of various aspects of an orientation course gave the most favorable positions to the following areas in the order listed: personality development and mental hygiene, vocational planning, avocational planning, participation in social activities, and study methods (696). The Committee on Orientation of Freshmen of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education (711) advised

against a standardized or too highly formalized course and against a short course and recommended a close relationship between the counselor system and the program of orientation.

Rosecrance (712) reported emphasis in secondary-school courses upon information and study with respect to educational, occupational, and recreational activities, with more adequate help being given college preparatory students for adjustment beyond high school than for the others.

### **Evaluation of Group Guidance Activities**

*The general program*—An indirect evaluation of both freshman week and orientation courses was included in Gardner's study (702) of student personnel services in higher institutions. Gardner concluded from score-card ratings that the ratings of a program of orientation are of considerable value in judging the general excellence of an institution. Since there was no differentiation between the group guidance and survey types of course the findings would not give a valid rating of the group guidance type alone. Both freshman week and group guidance courses for freshmen received favorable ratings as of major importance in 90 percent or more of the colleges and universities maintaining such activities as reported by Walters (719).

An experimental study by Bennett (696) of the outcomes for students of experiences in a semester orientation course provided comparisons of six hundred and two eleventh-year and thirteenth-year orientation and control group students, all of whom were receiving a counseling service, thus making the group guidance the differentiating factor. The orientation groups made statistically reliable greater gains on nearly all informational aspects of the work tested and gave evidence of a quality of thinking superior to that of the control group with respect to choices and plans except in reasons for attending college. Comparisons with respect to participation in student activities, leadership, and social adjustment over a two-year period tended consistently to favor the orientation group, but differences were not statistically reliable and were derived from data too meager to yield thoroughly dependable conclusions.

*The occupations course*—At the college level, Williamson (720) found significant net gains over control groups for occupational information classes from beginning to end of a term in knowledge both of occupations and of methods of choosing an occupation. In a semester course in occupations at the ninth grade, Haugen and Douglass (704) found increased percent of pupils with occupational and educational plans and improved reasons for choices at the end of the semester. Gooch (703) emphasized the need for encouraging but not committing the student to early development of a predominant interest to serve as a center for planning and organizing activities.

*How-to-study courses*—Several experimental studies in this field have been reported recently. Turrell (717) concluded from his comparison of

paired experimental and control students that certain groups profit significantly in improved scholarship by a study-methods training program, but that it should not be required of all students. The slight superiority of the trained group for the first semester increased over a two-year period. Winter (721) reported a temporary salutary effect on scholarship but a negligible permanent value of a program of study help for college students in the two lowest deciles on an intelligence test. Eckert and Jones (699) compared the college achievement of students in the lower ranges of their high-school classes who received training in study methods at the University of Buffalo with students matched on pertinent factors other than high-school performance, and concluded that the training resulted in improvement.

Wagner and Strabel (718) who experimented with various types of study-methods training in two large secondary schools found consistently favorable results in both quality and quantity of academic work of the trained groups under different procedures. A similar study by Mills (708) during the same period showed no reliable differences, and Wagner and Strabel (718) reported further experimentation to check reasons for conflicting evidence. Several studies deal with specific types of study help. Salisbury (714) reported favorable results for training in outlining; Naden (709) compared direct and indirect methods of teaching study habits in science; Johnson (706) compared study practices of good and poor students and found the differentiating factor largely a question of attitude.

### Methods and Materials

Summaries of various types of methods and materials that have been found helpful in group guidance have been made by Allen and Bennett (694). Bennett's evaluation (696) of an orientation program yielded less favorable data for those aspects of the program comparable to freshman week lectures than for those conducted in small class groups with counselors. Comparisons of groups with and without available reference materials yielded negative findings for lectures and discussions without intensive study. The reactions of students to varying programs also suggest the need for a fundamental rather than a superficial approach to the study of guidance problems. Ross (713) reported more favorable results in scholarship for college freshmen informed of low scores on intelligence tests and given encouragement and special help than for control groups given neither test results nor help. Upon the basis of inferential evidence Shuford (715) suggested the value of group discussion with social case-work clients and Hoppock (705) reported on the value of motion pictures in group guidance classes.

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